

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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MR. JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, WITH JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR.

(The picture is from a photograph taken on the occasion of the appearance of Dr. Harry Emerson Fosdick as Dr. Cornelius Woelfkin's successor in the pulpit of the Park Avenue Baptist Church, New York City. Mr. Rockefeller, who was born on July 8, 1839, is about to enter his eighty-seventh year. He retired from active business a number of years ago, and lives in closely guarded privacy, but retains his interest in the affairs of the country and the world, while devoting his great fortune to constructive educational and philanthropic enterprises, through carefully devised agencies but with unlimited generosity. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., who is in his fifty-second year, has assumed large business responsibilities in relief of his father, but devotes a great part of his time to the detailed work of the great system of foundations and boards that the Rockefeller fortune has endowed. Medical research and education in America; international health work; the better support of the teaching profession and the increased endowment of colleges and universities; education and health in China—these are among the more general fields in which Mr. Rockefeller is bestowing not merely pecuniary support but also personal effort based upon remarkably wide and accurate information. Apart from the work of the Rockefeller boards, many direct personal contributions witness Mr. Rockefeller's broad sympathies. A great gift to France for the restoration of the Rheims Cathedral, and the repair of the Palace of Versailles, are instances in point, not to mention recent donations to monumental church projects in New York City. The latest Rockefeller gift is that of \$600,000 for the purchase of George Grey Barnard's famous "Cloisters," containing many objects of old French Gothic art. This collection will remain where Mr. Barnard placed it, on Washington Heights, in the northern part of Manhattan Island, and is under the control of the Metropolitan Museum of Art)

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No. 1

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Evolution
Forty Years
Ago*

Forty years ago, while Woodrow Wilson was a student at the Johns Hopkins University, which was then our most conspicuous center of scientific research, he was deeply interested in a heresy trial that was attracting wide attention in church circles, in the newspapers, and in educational institutions. The man on trial was the Rev. James Woodrow, D.D., the uncle for whom Woodrow Wilson was named. Dr. Woodrow was a professor in the South Carolina College and Theological Seminary at Columbia, S. C., this being a Presbyterian institution. It devolved upon this Southern scholar to give courses in the Natural Sciences as related to Revelation. He was charged with presenting the theory of Evolution in undue sympathy with the Darwinian school, and in violation of orthodox teaching on the origin of man and the creation of the world. The trial was a protracted one, and it holds its place in the annals of American education and theology. Dr. Woodrow was found guilty under the charges, and his career at the South Carolina institution seemed to have come to an end. His loyal nephew was indignant and the scientific men of the country were scornful.

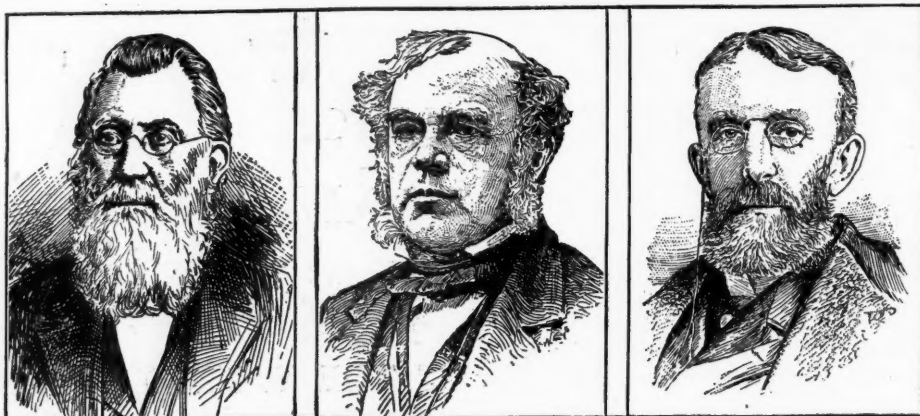
*A Science
Teacher's
Experiences*

This trial occurred in 1884, and those who care to look it up in the libraries will find ample accounts of it in the newspapers and the periodical literature of that year. In 1885, however, Dr. Woodrow was notified that the Presbyterian synods having ultimate control of the Seminary at Columbia had refused to sustain the local verdict of the previous year, and that he was entitled to his teaching chair and his emoluments.

The case seems to have been reopened in the following year, and Dr. Woodrow's connection with the seminary ceased, but in due time he became president of the State College and continued to serve as a professor of geology and natural science, retiring in 1897, after which he filled many important business posts, while retaining his connection with learned societies at home and abroad. In his youth he had studied science under Agassiz at Harvard and under Bunsen at Heidelberg, receiving the degree of Ph.D. in that German University. He died in 1907, after his distinguished nephew had for some years filled the office of President of Princeton University. Although Princeton, itself, was a stronghold of Presbyterian orthodoxy, Woodrow Wilson encountered no opposition in upholding the university's entirely liberal attitude toward modern science, which is still maintained.

*Controversies
of the Nine-
teenth Century*

Those who believed in giving wise and mature teachers the right to use their own discretion in presenting scientific subjects to their pupils had naturally rejoiced in the firm stand of Dr. Woodrow, and they were optimistic enough in 1885 to believe that controversies of that particular kind in the United States would not survive the nineteenth century. A group of American scholars and scientific writers, working in close accord with such English expositors of scientific thought as Huxley and Tyndall, had dominated the American Association for the Advancement of Science. Attempts of the theologians to beat down the new scientific opinions by appealing to the Book of Genesis as definite and literal in setting



THREE FAMOUS AMERICAN SCHOLARS AND EXPONENTS OF MODERN SCIENTIFIC PROGRESS
(Left to right: Dr. James Woodrow, of South Carolina; Dr. John W. Draper, of New York University; Dr. Andrew D. White, first president of Cornell University)

forth the order of creation, and the nature and origin of man, were generally unsuccessful in colleges and universities, and among educated people. Dr. John W. Draper, the great scientist and teacher of New York University, published in 1874 his famous book on the "History of the Conflict between Religion and Science." He was teaching in a Presbyterian atmosphere, but held his advanced ground without flinching. Dr. Andrew D. White, president of Cornell University, writing from the standpoint of the historical scholar, devoted many years to the study of the relations between the dogmatists of theology and the leaders of scientific progress, publishing in the middle seventies a volume that afterward grew into his masterly work (1896) entitled "A History of the Warfare of Science with Theology in Christendom." While Cornell University was still in its opening years, attacks were made upon it as a center of irreligious scientific teaching. In an address at Cooper Union, New York City, in 1875, Dr. White dealt with the question of the age-long friction between dogmatic theology and scientific research; and it was this lecture, then published in the New York newspapers, that was expanded later until it culminated in the author's monumental work cited above.

Dogmatism and the March of Science It was supposed that science had gained its full freedom to investigate, to report its findings, and to set forth theories and hypotheses. As compared with what is yet

to be known, it is probably true that science has made only a limited beginning. Galileo, in the year 1632 brought out his book entitled "Dialogues on the Systems of the World," after which he was indicted, condemned, and sentenced to detention and other penalties, including suppression of his book, by Pope Urban VIII at Rome, because he had ventured, as a result of his studies, to announce the truth that the earth is a spherical body revolving around the sun, and not the four-cornered, flat, and immovable affair that theologians held it to be. Ever since that time astronomers have been adding to the sum total of their knowledge of the universe. The nebular hypothesis helps some minds to give a logical arrangement to certain facts that seem to have been fairly well proved as regards the solar system; but there is nothing sacred about this particular hypothesis, or any other.

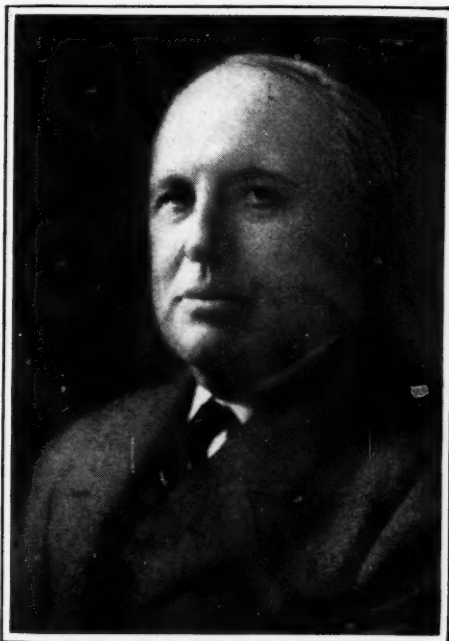
The Realms of Knowledge

The sciences of physics, chemistry, and biology are making constant advances, and within the technical areas of those subjects new hypotheses from time to time are succeeding those that have served their purposes. Bacteriology has revolutionized the science of medicine and the art of healing; but the wisest men working in these fields of research are modest as they realize how little they know in comparison with what may yet be discovered. It would be too much to expect that each grown-up individual in a great country like ours should be capable of exercising individual judgment on all questions that enter into religious, or

political, or scientific controversy. The great public will continue to defer to trusted leaders. The only wonder is that we have gone forward so well, and that the leaders are so much less bitter in their disputes than in former periods. There is less of dogmatism and more of tolerance. It should be admitted that scientific dogmatists can at times be almost or quite as intolerant and narrow as the heresy hunters of the rigid theological creeds. Liberty of thought and teaching is, in the main, fairly well established in the twentieth century. It is not, however, so completely vindicated as the young men of Woodrow Wilson's student days, forty years ago, supposed that it would be by this time—a hundred years after the death of Thomas Jefferson.

*Denominations
and Their
Strivings*

Certain denominational controversies of the present year would seem rather belated, in view of the past hundred years of discussion. A great gathering of Unitarians at Boston, several weeks ago, celebrated the centenary of a movement that has had an influence far greater than its mere numerical rank among the denominations. There are fewer than five hundred Unitarian Churches and ministers in the country, and the total membership is not far above a hundred thousand. But the Unitarians have given us a long and brilliant array of educational leaders, pulpit orators, men of letters, statesmen, philanthropists and exponents of freedom in teaching and thinking. Historically, the Unitarians of New England were Congregationalists who followed their leaders in a movement of reaction against the dogmatic Calvinistic theology that had survived from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Midway in this past century (the completion of which the Unitarians have been celebrating) the Congregationalists went through another acute period of theological controversy, centering about doctrinal teachings prevalent in their theological seminaries, notably the one that was then located at Andover, Mass. These later Congregational differences did not result in any serious break. The one-time fashion of seeking out and pursuing heretics has disappeared, in the prevalence of a more practical view of the nature of religion and of the mission of the church to the world. If the Congregationalism of 1825 had been as warmly devoted to the spirit



REV. SAMUEL A. ELIOT, D.D., OF BOSTON,
PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN UNITARIAN
ASSOCIATION

(Dr. Eliot, who is the son of the president emeritus of Harvard University and who will be sixty-three years of age in August, graduated at Harvard in 1884 and entered the Unitarian Ministry five years later, serving churches in Denver and elsewhere. He has now been president of the Unitarian Association for a quarter of a century)

of the founder of Christianity as that of 1925, it is not likely that the Unitarian wing would have withdrawn.

*The Fosdick
Case and
New Disputes*

Denominational controversy has a way of raging about some concrete instance rather than about abstractions unrelated to time and place. Thus the New York Presbytery was disposed by a large majority to support the Rev. Dr. Harry Emerson Fosdick, who had been preaching in a Presbyterian pulpit for several years without subscribing to Presbyterian creeds. Dr. Fosdick had been ordained in the Baptist denomination, and was not willing to have his position as an evangelical minister questioned. Neither was he willing to say that he, as a professor in the Union Theological Seminary and a divinity scholar of established repute, must have his beliefs expressed for him in the antiquated and narrowly restrictive phrases of the less competent ecclesiastics who framed the Westminster

Confession in the year 1646. It was a somewhat startling discovery to the Protestant churches of America that so devout and so influential a religious teacher as Dr. Fosdick was not to be protected by the customs of inter-church comity, in preaching to a congregation that was unanimous in supporting him. Yet the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church, overruling the Presbytery of New York, decided in 1924 that Dr. Fosdick must subscribe to Presbyterian creeds or withdraw from the pulpit of the First Presbyterian Church.

*Tendencies
and
Factions*

Dr. Fosdick remains at the Union Theological Seminary and is probably the most popular professor in any American school for the training of ministers. This fact is worth recording as showing a certain drift, inasmuch as the Union Theological Seminary historically is a Presbyterian institution, while it would now be classified as undenominational. The emergence of the Fosdick controversy, and its appeal to the General Assembly, has been perhaps the principal occasion for the more recent hardening of tendencies into factions. In the Presbyterian Church, the Fundamentalists were, for the most part, men who were accepting traditional theology without critical study on their own part, while the Modernists were those whose habits of mind or associations had led them to distinguish between dogmatic theology and practical religion, and had made them at once tolerant and progressive.

*Presbyterians
and their
Differences*

The last meeting of the General Assembly, which was held at Columbus, Ohio, late in May, was less sensational in its proceedings and its dissensions than many people had expected. The newspapers have assigned to Mr. William Jennings Bryan the position of accepted leader of the Fundamentalists, not only within the Presbyterian fold but at large throughout the ranks of the orthodox evangelicals of the country. It was stated that Mr. Bryan was going to Columbus to elect a moderator of his own choice and to fight the Modernists to a finish. It is true that Mr. Bryan had been elected vice-moderator last year, when Dr. Clarence E. McCartney, militant fundamentalist, was chosen moderator by eighteen votes over Dr. Charles R. Erdman, of Princeton. This year Dr. Erdman

was again nominated, and had the support of all the more liberal and conciliatory elements in the Assembly. The Fundamentalist candidate was Dr. McAfee, of Los Angeles. On the second ballot, Dr. Erdman received 470, and Dr. McAfee 420 votes. This result was regarded as fortunate for the future harmony of the Presbyterian Church. Dr. Erdman is a professor in the Princeton Theological Seminary and pastor of the First Presbyterian Church of Princeton. He does not accept the so-called Modernist views, personally espousing all the traditional doctrines that relate to Christianity as a revealed religion of miraculous origin and authority; but he is noted for his tolerant spirit and for an influence that is constructive and unifying.

*Compromises
and Prospects*

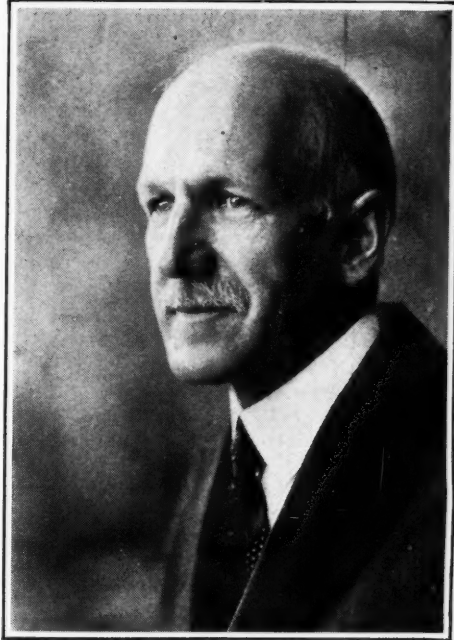
Apart from the election of Dr. Erdman, there was little comfort that the Liberals derived from the Columbus meeting of the General Assembly. A report was sustained that asserts the right of the General Assembly to dictate to the local Presbyteries in regard to the precise doctrinal views of candidates for the ministry. This issue will undoubtedly be opened again next year. The New York Presbytery is by no means submissive, and it denies emphatically the constitutional right of the General Assembly to take out of the hands of the local authorities a discretion that they have always exercised. In the great city of Cleveland, Ohio, where Congregationalists and Presbyterians happen to be similarly influential and strong denominations (and very good friends and neighbors, withal), there is a movement on foot to see if some plan of union may not be found feasible. The question of authorizing the Cleveland Presbytery to take up such negotiations with the Congregationalists was the subject of a significant debate in the General Assembly at Columbus. Against some strongly expressed opposition, the Assembly voted in favor of permitting the Cleveland attempt to proceed. This does not mean that there is any prospect of an early fusion of separate church organizations. Even when the original motives have lost their force, the traditions and sentiments that affect denominational orders are still very potent. The vested interests that are concerned have an inertia that does not yield easily.

*Pros and
Cons of
Union*

Yet, as soon as particular denominations have lost faith in their own exclusive possession of truth, and have ceased to believe that it is their duty to make proselytes from the other creeds, they have become merely traditional institutions. They are perpetuating themselves, too often, at the expense of efficiency in the work of advancing the common cause of the Christian religion. Action on the locality basis, such as the Cleveland idea suggests, would seem to offer the best way to deal with the reproach of a needless and outgrown denominationalism. The higher ecclesiastical authorities do not get together easily, because their negotiations are remote from the everyday realities. The opponents of the Cleveland idea asked more or less pertinently, why the several distinct Presbyterian denominations should not reunite first, before any attempt should be made to join forces with Congregationalists. The answer is that it is much easier for people to come together in their own communities than to work out schemes of union between the heads of denominations. Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians are further divided among themselves into a number of detached organic groups. These cleavages, however, are not so serious in practice as might be thought. The Federal Council of Churches, in which about thirty denominations are represented, helps to promote coöperation on the higher plane, while locality councils of a similar nature bring together the ministers and the laymen of different denominations in helpful ways.

*Church
Fusion in
Canada*

The experience of Canada, where the Presbyterians, Methodists, and Congregationalists have come together after more than twenty years of negotiation, must have a profound influence upon church affairs in the United States and England. These three denominations in Canada have given up their distinctive names, and have been merged by act of Parliament under the name of the "United Church of Canada." They comprise thirty per cent. of the Dominion population. Methodists and Congregationalists heartily accepted this project in 1911; but it was only two years ago that the Presbyterian General Assembly of Canada, by a vote of 426 for union and 129 against, made itself a party to the merger. Legislation in the separate provinces was required



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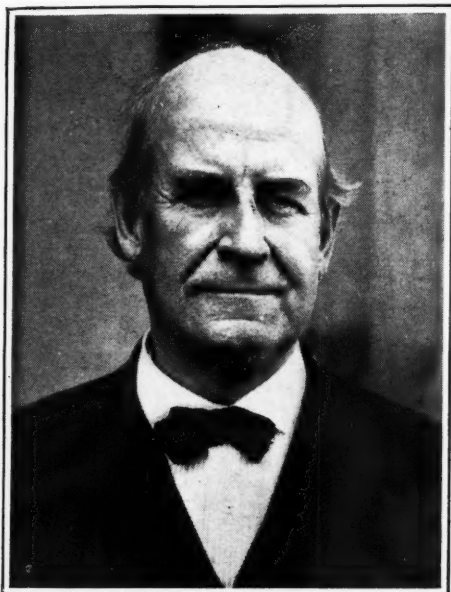
REV. CHARLES R. ERDMAN, D.D., MODERATOR
OF THE PRESBYTERIAN ASSEMBLY

(Dr. Erdman, who will be fifty-nine years old on July 20, graduated at Princeton in 1886, and was ordained a Presbyterian minister five years later. He became a professor in the Princeton Theological Seminary nineteen years ago)

as well as in the Dominion Parliament at Ottawa. To give up the cherished traditions and sentiments that were associated with the denominational titles was no easy thing for the Canadians; and a considerable minority of the Presbyterian churches have refused to enter the union.

*Baptists
and a Point
of Conscience*

The question arises, naturally, why the Baptists of Canada were not included in the union. The answer, of course, is to be found in the fact that so many Baptists continue to regard a precise method of administering the rite of baptism as an essential matter, about which they cannot in good conscience make compromises. This issue has now become acute in Baptist circles of the United States by reason of the circumstances under which Dr. Harry Emerson Fosdick has agreed to take up the pastorate of the Park Avenue Baptist Church in New York City. Dr. Cornelius Woelfkin has resigned as pastor, to take effect at the beginning of the coming year; and Dr. Fosdick is to be his successor while also keeping his



HON. WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN

(Who has been a political, moral, and religious crusader for more than thirty years)

chair in the Union Theological Seminary. Dr. Fosdick made his acceptance conditional upon the building of a great new church near Columbia University. He also made further condition that membership in the church should not be restricted by reason of particular dogmas; that is to say, there should be liberty of judgment as regards immersion. The Park Avenue Church, with Dr. Woelfkin heartily approving, accepted Dr. Fosdick's conditions with few dissenting votes. Among the most influential members of this church are Mr. Rockefeller and his family.

*Great
Projects
in New York*

Although Baptists themselves, Mr. John D. Rockefeller and his son have been unsparing in their gifts to churches and institutions under the control of other denominations. In the recent campaign for the building of the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., was notably generous with money and with moral support. In the current effort to finance Dr. Christian F. Reisner's proposed Broadway Temple, Mr. Rockefeller has also been among the foremost with pecuniary aid at the critical moment, thus assuring the success of the enterprise. The Broadway

Temple, which is Methodist, will be built on the skyscraper plan, and is to combine a hotel and apartment house with all the various modern features of the institutional church. The new structure of the Park Avenue Baptist Church is to have a more or less similar character. It will face Morningside Park and be known as the "Morningside Church." Bishop Manning, who has sought and received the support of members of all denominations for the Cathedral, has welcomed and encouraged Dr. Reisner's project, and the Morningside Church will, of course, be another institution in the upper part of Manhattan Island working in practical ways for religious unity and the lessening of rivalries, joining spiritual forces with the Cathedral.

*The South
Remains
Conservative*

Thus the intense sectarianism of the periods that witnessed the beginnings of our numerous Protestant denominations seems to be waning rapidly in New York and to have lost its vitality in New England, while in the Middle West the practical advantages of local unity are pointing toward such movements as are now visible in Cleveland and elsewhere. In the South, however, the divisive dogmas and sectarian distinctions of a century or two ago are still tenacious. The leadership of educated men like Dr. James Woodrow has not yet wholly prevailed in the counsels of the Protestant denominations of our Southern States.

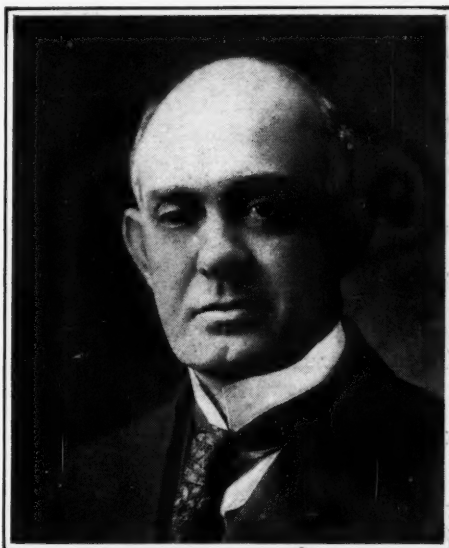
*Mr. Bryan and
Crusading
Fundamentalism*

It would be difficult and perhaps useless to try to explain just why the legislature of Tennessee should have waited until now before passing a law prohibiting the teaching of the theory of evolution in all schools and institutions supported by the taxpayers. Perhaps Mr. Bryan has had something to do with current phases of the "Fundamentalism" uprising that is not confined to one State but is evident in many. It was Mr. Bryan's campaigning previous to his nomination for the presidency in 1896 that explained in part the almost frenzied fanaticism with which the South and West accepted the dogma of free silver at the ratio of sixteen to one. Of late, Mr. Bryan has been crusading against evolution, and in behalf of the literal acceptance of the Old Testament as an infallible teacher of science and of history. As recently as March 23 of the present year, Gov. Austin Peay

signed a bill that had passed both houses of the legislature prohibiting the teaching of evolution in the public schools, and specifically endorsing the story of the creation of man as taught in Genesis. In Kentucky, last year, a similar bill was defeated by a single vote in the Senate, after it had passed the other house.

**Challenging
An Extensive
Movement**

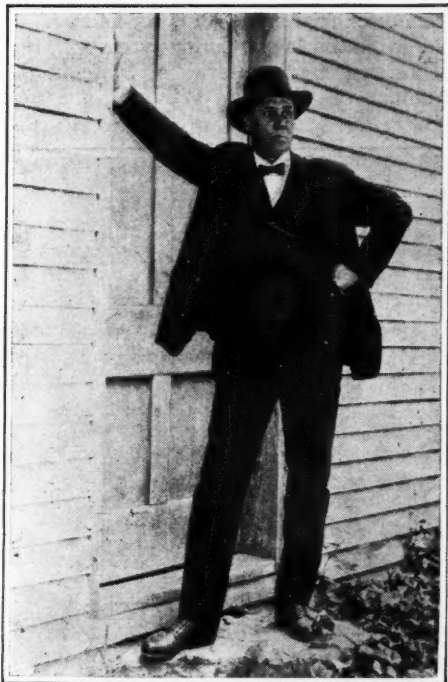
It was stated that the defeat of the bill in Kentucky was due to the determined stand taken by the educational authorities of the State University in public addresses. It is not quite clear why the Tennessee bill did not meet with more outspoken opposition. It should be explained at once that it does not affect higher institutions that are supported by endowments, but only those that are a part of the State school system. Publicity given to a test case that is about to be tried in Tennessee has diverted attention from the fact that similar legislation has been enacted in Oklahoma and that administrative school bodies in several Southern States are declining to employ



GOVERNOR AUSTIN PEAY, OF TENNESSEE

(Governor Peay signed the now famous bill as a matter of routine, not expecting the law to be challenged)

teachers who uphold the theory of evolution. A summary prepared by a scientific body states that the movement against the teaching of evolution in schools has assumed active phases in at least fifteen States, with campaigns beginning in a number of others. Certain individuals in the town of Dayton, Tennessee, which is the county seat of Rhea County, decided in May to test the constitutionality of the new law. A young teacher in the County High School, J. T. Scopes by name, was charged with having violated the new law, and he was indicted by a local grand jury on May 25.

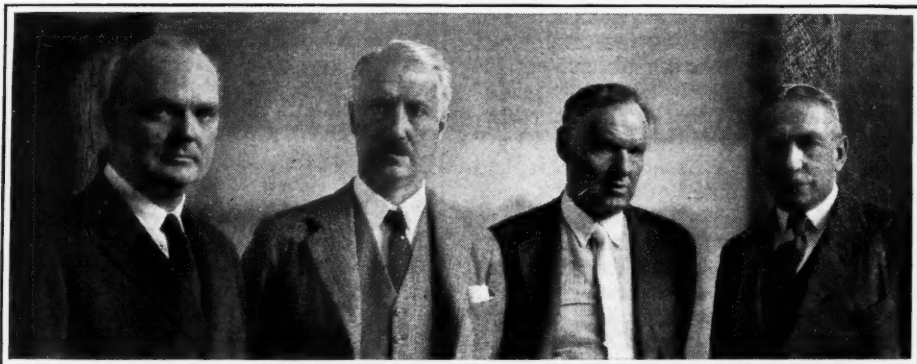


HON. JOHN W. BUTLER

(The Fundamentalist member of the Tennessee Legislature who introduced the bill that endorsed Genesis and outlawed Evolution)

**The Law
To Be
Tested**

The indictment states that Scopes had taught "certain theories that deny the story of the divine creation of man as taught in the Bible, and did teach instead thereof that man has descended from a lower order of animals." The Judge read the first chapter of Genesis to the jury and gave instructions which made the indictment inevitable, although the Governor is reported to have said when he signed the bill that it probably never would be applied. The Tennessee situation is due perhaps to the way in which text-books are written, rather than to the personal views of teachers. School authorities are now busily engaged in Tennessee, as elsewhere in the South, in



A CONFERENCE IN NEW YORK PREPARATORY TO AN ATTACK UPON THE TENNESSEE EVOLUTION LAW

(Left to right, are three lawyers: Dudley Field Malone, Bainbridge Colby, and Clarence Darrow. At the extreme right is Henry Fairfield Osborn, eminent scientist and head of the American Museum of Natural History)

scrutinizing scientific text-books in order to exclude those that oppose the beliefs of the so-called fundamentalists. Young Mr. Scopes seems to have offended the majesty of the law through a merely routine use of a text-book that had been accepted and was already in use, without any reference to his somewhat recent connection with the County High School. Professor Mims, of Vanderbilt University, at Nashville, has been showing the practical difficulty of censoring scientific works.

*Tennessee's
Midsummer
Diversion*

The trial is set for July 10, and arrangements have been made to have it outrival as a scene of national interest, if possible, the Democratic national convention of last year in Madison Square Garden. Several, indeed, of the star performers of that Democratic convention will appear at this Tennessee trial as debaters for and against the evolution law. Curiously enough, two of these were Secretaries of State in the Cabinet of Woodrow Wilson. The first



A GROUP OF CITIZENS OF DAYTON, TENNESSEE, PLANNING TO TEST THE ANTIEVOLUTION LAW

(Seated around the table, from left to right, are: H. E. Hicks, an attorney; John T. Scopes; Walter White, superintendent of schools of Rhea City; and County Judge McKenzie)

of the two, William J. Bryan, is to appear as the principal aid of the local prosecutor in attacking the grave heresy of evolution in schools. The other is Mr. Bainbridge Colby, who has volunteered to defend Mr. Scopes, along with Mr. Clarence Darrow of Chicago, Mr. Dudley Field Malone, and other well-known legal orators. Eminent scientists have been consulted and some of them are expected to appear as expert witnesses. "The newspapers are exploiting this mid-summer sensation, and local persons find themselves famous and in demand for "the pictures."

*The
Bryan
Position*

The Bryan position is quite simple, and seems plausible on its face. The people who pay the taxes that support the schools, says Mr. Bryan, have a right to say what shall be taught in the schools; and their only way of saying it is through their representatives in the legislature. Mr. Scopes as an individual, says Mr. Bryan, is at perfect liberty to believe in evolution; but in his capacity as a teacher in the schools he must obey the law and be careful not to flout Genesis. The defenders of Mr. Scopes will attempt to uphold the right of scientific research and of free speech and discussion; and will presumably try to show that the Tennessee law is in its essential nature a violation of constitutional privileges. Public sentiment in Tennessee is so strongly opposed to scientific hypotheses that would seem to be in conflict with Scriptural teaching that there is no real danger that public school boards will employ teachers who would flagrantly offend the opinions and consciences of the community. This is what the Governor meant, presumably, when he said that the law would not have to be applied.

*Freedom
Demanded
for Teachers*

The leaders of science have by no means agreed upon any exact presentation of evolutionary doctrine that they would insist upon administering to high-school pupils in Tennessee. There does not seem to be much more reason for a crusade on one side of this subject than for a crusade on the other side. But attempts to interfere with the freedom of teaching are as foolish as they are futile. Everybody who associates with his fellowmen is at once a learner and a teacher. People acquire some of their learning in the schools, but most of it else-

where. Those young people in Tennessee who have scientific aptitudes and tastes will read scientific books and form their own opinions. Their religious faith will not be of much value if it is to be affected by some allusion that a school teacher may or may not make to Darwinian theories. Attempts to interfere with good teachers on the ground that they are protectionists or free-traders, or of this or that church connection, have been quite generally abandoned as silly. It is not practicable to encourage freedom of thought and speech everywhere else, and to discourage it in school rooms. Wise teachers are those who help their pupils to learn how to think for themselves. Since it is impossible to check the processes of learning, which are the really important thing, it is only a waste of effort to try to limit freedom in the processes of teaching. Good teachers are greatly to be desired, and need no interference. It is the duty of legislatures to provide more liberally for the encouragement, training, and selection of really competent teachers. It is hardly likely that the debate at Dayton, Tenn., will result in strengthening the kind of fundamentalism that Mr. Bryan advocates. Nor is it to be expected that it will do much to enlighten the public mind on so complicated and difficult a subject as is suggested by the word evolution.

*Schools
and
Graduates*

We have exalted and expanded schools of all kinds until they have taken a much larger relative place in the life of the country than ever before. Inasmuch as school terms and periods usually end in June, the beginning of the second half of the calendar year is more significant for increasing multitudes of young people than the first of January. Improved school facilities and a higher average of material prosperity have made it possible for immense numbers of people to study in High-School grades before joining the army of wage-earners. While it is also true that the number of college and university students in proportion to the whole population is much larger than in former periods, it is the High-School movement that is most notable. High-School work well performed under good teachers provides a foundation upon which any boy or girl may, with due energy, build a successful career in any field of effort. The American college, as it is now carried on, is chiefly valuable in future life for its associa-

tions and friendships, and for its relation to those ideals of conduct and character, alike in public and private life, that it is for the best welfare of the community to maintain.

*High School
Versus
College*

The High-School graduates who are now turning to business pursuits or taking up particular trades and callings will have some advantages over their friends and companions who are going to spend the next four years as college students. It is plain to all those who are close observers of the present-day working of our college system, that the four years from eighteen to twenty-two ought somehow to be made to produce better results, as regards intellectual progress and fitness for life in the world at large. But the colleges show no sign of languishing, and doubtless they will find ways to give better and more definite individual training. The larger colleges and universities grow ever more extensive and important, while many of those that were small and weak a generation ago are now relatively mature in their facilities, large in their numbers of students, and equal in educational opportunity to any of the older and more famous establishments. The graduating classes of high schools and colleges find themselves this year a numerous throng,

and they are in no danger of encountering unfriendliness or serious difficulty as they take up practical work.

*Annulment of
the Oregon
School Law*

When a question involving broad principles reaches the Supreme Court at Washington, we may generally look for a decision that makes its way to the root of the controversy. Such a question was at stake in the Oregon School law, enacted in the year 1922, that required "every parent, guardian, or other person having control, or charge, or custody of a child between eight and sixteen years to send him to a public school for the period of time a public school shall be held during the current year in the district where the child resides"; and failure to do so was declared a misdemeanor. The object of the law was, simply, to compel children to attend the graded public schools, and not to attend parochial or private schools. The motive behind the law, it is to be presumed, was to put an end to the schools carried on in parishes by Catholic or other churches. One of the contestants in the case before the Supreme Court, however, was a military academy which is non-sectarian. The Federal Court in Oregon had decided against the law; but the State officials appealed to the Supreme Court. The opinion was rendered on June 1 by Justice McReynolds, the court being unanimous, and the Oregon law was declared unconstitutional.

*Questions of
Fundamental
Liberty*

Justice McReynolds declared that "the child is not the mere creature of the State." He went on to say that "the fundamental theory of liberty, upon which all governments in this Union repose, excludes any general power of the State to standardize its children by forcing them to accept instruction from public teachers only." Oregon has long had a compulsory education law, and this was not brought into question. But three years ago the voters of the State, by 115,506 against 103,685, enacted an addition to the compulsory law which excluded private and denominational schools. The Supreme Court ruled that under the Fourteenth Amendment the property rights of existing private and church schools were guaranteed, and held that it was reasonable for parents to patronize these schools under such necessary supervision as the compulsory school law requires.



THAT FINISHES IT

From the *News Tribune* (Tacoma, Wash.)

While the statements of principle in the Oregon case would not apply specifically to the Tennessee case, it must be plain that there are some features of likeness between the two. In each State, there would seem to have been an unreasonable infringement of fundamental rights. One objection to the Tennessee law lies in the fact that it is non-enforceable in its very nature. Scientific facts may be so stated as to lead to inferences in keeping with the theory of evolution, while the teacher might not have said a word upon which he could be arraigned. Censorship in the teaching of science must be found in practice to be even more difficult than the censorship of books, plays, and moving pictures.

*The
Bible in
Schools*

There is said to be some controversy in the State of Delaware over a new law that requires every teacher to begin each period of instruction with the reading of the Bible. This law is precisely the opposite of the policy of certain States that forbid the reading of the Bible in public schools. Each of these positions interferes with reasonable liberty. It is permissible for local school boards to have cognizance of matters of this kind, and to see that in the public schools there should be no teaching that is intended to promote sectarian views. The Bible is the greatest and by far the most influential of all literary or religious works. Familiarity with many of its phrases is a most desirable part of education. When read in schools, Bible instruction should be from a standpoint different from that of Scriptural reading in churches. It should be used for its noble and inspiring phrases that inculcate virtuous living and that stimulate right conduct and fine effort. It should also be used for its beauty and variety as a monument of classical literature. A law compelling its use in schools without reference to the way in which it is used cannot be justified. On the other hand, laws and regulations that would forbid its use are equally without justification. The teaching profession should insist upon being treated with respect, and should rally all the best forces of public opinion against the stupid interference of legislatures. Governor Donahey, on April 30, vetoed a bill that had passed both houses of the legislature to compel the daily reading of the Bible in Ohio public schools. Similar bills have

appeared in various States in consequence of an organized propaganda.

*Too Much
Governing
Activity*

Several months ago we made extended comment in these pages upon the meeting of the 1925 legislatures and the principal topics set forth in the messages of Governors. The National Industrial Council is now authority for the statement that nearly 11,000 new laws have been enacted this year, 38,844 bills having been introduced in the legislatures of the thirty-eight States. The American people are now living under almost innumerable regulations, and it is high time to reduce and simplify them. Fortunately, the general character of this year's enactments, taking the country at large, shows progress in the direction of intelligence and common sense. A period of war not only arouses the latent energies of a nation, but of necessity stimulates and enlarges the governmental machinery. War, in its very nature, is state socialism completely organized and despotically directed. It is difficult after a war to throw off the shackles of this expanded officialdom. The country is trying to find its way back to the normal basis and to rediscover the America of personal liberty and private initiative that disappeared in 1917. President Coolidge is doing his best to demobilize what is left of the expanded government mechanisms of seven years ago, and he ought to be supported all along the line.

*Justice
and the
People*

It might be a good thing, for a time, to have legislatures meet in alternate years with the sole purpose of repealing, revising, and simplifying existing laws. At least well qualified committees of legislators assisted by experts ought to be at work between biennial sessions in making ready to report on revised methods of administering justice, on improved penal codes, on reform of tax laws, and so on. Our mystifying tangle of statutes tends to victimize the ordinary citizen. He cannot possibly know the laws under which he lives. Neither can he understand the technicalities that prevail in the administration of justice. In a powerful editorial, calling for the "democratization of justice," Mr. George F. Milton, of the *Chattanooga News*, sets forth a series of reforms already achieved, such as that of our money and credit under the Federal Reserve system;

and he calls for the application of the reform spirit to the problem of justice as affecting individuals. He reminds us of the ease and simplicity with which justice is administered in England, in contrast with our devotion to obsolete and cumbersome technicalities. He refers as follows to the efforts of Chief Justice Taft and the American Bar Association:

Among the things which the Bar Association Committee points out as hurtful in our present legal system are these:

1. The cluttering of the courts with appeals based upon flimsy technicalities.
2. Too great a dependence upon outworn precedent by the bench.
3. The high cost of law to the poor.
4. The usual long delay before final decision.
5. The lack of uniformity between States in their laws on identic matters.
6. The frequent disparity between law and justice.

Certainly each of these six faults complained of is capable of solution by a revision of the modes of procedure of our courts, a standardization of statutes between States, and a simplification of the resultant codes.

Recent statements from the Attorney-General's office show that cases pending in Federal Courts have doubled in ten years, and now aggregate more than 125,000 annually.

Farming and Its Status

The crisis that has shaken American agriculture to its foundations has passed through its acute phases. Violent earthquake shocks are no longer features of the news from the farming districts. Those, however, who imagine that the devastated regions have been fully restored to normal prosperity may know a good deal about France and Belgium, but they know very little about the United States. Up to a certain point, where whole states or regions are visited by war, earthquake, or financial shock caused by things beyond the control of the victims, recovery demands public and official assistance. Beyond that point, private agencies must resume their control of the situation and expect no favors. Any country lacks intelligent statesmanship that pursues policies which tend to build up flourishing cities and to produce a discouraged and impoverished agriculture. This, however, is not a matter related to any immediate crisis, but rests rather upon permanent considerations. As regards the present year's business, the farmers are aware that they must look out for themselves.

Markets Rather than Production

So far as the production of crops is concerned, our farmers cannot be taught very much. They now understand the principles of soil maintenance, the use of good seeds, the feeding and improvement of live stock, and the other factors that enter into the kind of farming that belongs to their particular districts. They are making long strides toward the thing that is most necessary for their economic salvation, namely, the standardization of their cash crops and the use of the cooperative method to protect the individual farmer against the vicissitudes of fluctuating markets. This movement has much farther to go, but it is already recognized not only as indispensable, but as really offering some hope for an otherwise desperate situation. Next month we shall have some important contributions to make in this periodical to the discussion of the achievements, as well as the methods and principles, of agricultural coöperation.

As to One's Own Affairs

The present summer offers the best time that has presented itself for ten years for the individual to concentrate attention upon his own business, and to set his house in order. Every man or woman who works for a living, or who has some invested resources, must use the best judgment available in his private affairs, but it is always to be remembered that nobody can fully control his own economic destiny. Everybody is subject to vicissitudes, the harsh facts of which may be mitigated by resort to the principle of insurance. Life insurance saves millions of families from hardships that intensify the pain of bereavement. Fire insurance costs something, but is justified on the grounds of prudence. There seems to be an increasing need of insuring valuables against burglary, and of insuring automobiles against accidents as well as against thieves. In the farming districts, there is an increasing tendency to make some use of the principle of crop insurance as against the blighting effects of hail or pests. Elsewhere in this number (see page 105) will be found an excellent article on weather insurance.

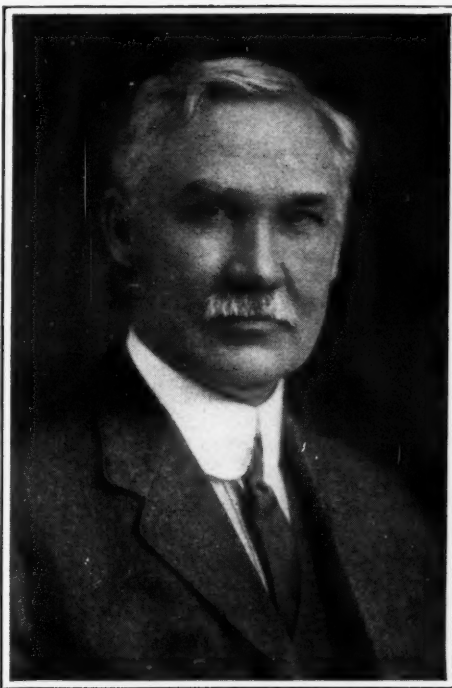
Investments as a Timely Topic

For people who have saved money or inherited it, and are more or less dependent upon income from investments, it is of the utmost importance to understand the difference

between conservative and desirable ways of putting money out at interest and the reckless and dangerous ways that end in disaster. The present is a particularly good season in which to study such subjects. We are publishing in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS certain articles that it will be worth while for many of our readers to study with care, because they tell of business conditions and of investment principles. Also, we are always endeavoring, in the editorial and business offices of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, to give sensible advice and useful suggestions to those who wish to consult our Investment Bureau or to get into touch with those reputable banks and financial agencies whose advertisements we regard as in every sense a valuable portion of our magazine. It remains true that, when the average man has done his best to thrive in the pursuit of his own trade or calling; when he has put into practice sound principles of insurance as applied to his own case; and when he has used the best available judgment as regards the investment of his savings, he is still subject to many whims and gusts of circumstance that lie beyond his control.

*The World
and the
Workers*

It used to be considered that international bankers, the heads of steel corporations, railroad presidents, and a few other important leaders might take the trouble to look around the world and find out what seemed to be the business prospects for a season or a year yet to come. But the ordinary citizen is learning that his affairs also are involved in the larger conditions of industry and trade. In England, where more than a million wage earners are unemployed, it has been brought home to coal miners, cotton spinners, shipbuilders, and workers in many other lines, that their bread and butter is a matter chiefly dependent upon certain international trade conditions. In consequence, these work people, through their immediate leaders and their newspapers, are finding themselves anxious students of economics and politics on the higher plane. If the questions at issue relating to the future of Germany, France, and Central Europe should be happily adjusted, there would be a much larger movement of commerce; more people would be set at work; and Dick, Tom, and Harry would be able to pay their rent, live decently, and buy shoes for their children.



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MR. GEORGE E. ROBERTS OF NEW YORK

(Whose analyses of business conditions have great practical influence)

*Some
"Serious"
Articles*

Perhaps there are a few of our readers who think that certain articles that appear in this magazine are unduly "serious," or "heavy." In reply to such possible criticism, we have only to say that in order to take life gaily at times, and to get a fair share of its pleasures, it is necessary for a part of the time to take life as seriously as one's brain power permits. We have no hesitation, therefore, in recommending for summer reading two articles in particular that appear in this July number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. One of these is the extended analysis by Mr. Simonds of the problem of peace in Europe. A war in Europe that recently took two million American boys across the Atlantic was no holiday affair there for them, or for twenty million families left behind in the United States. The future of world peace is not merely a subject for diplomats and statesmen, but it concerns every American boy and girl. As a personal affair of immediate importance, it is just as necessary to get rid of war as to avoid diphtheria, scarlet fever, typhoid and

smallpox. Until these great unsettled questions are rightly dealt with, they are the business of every intelligent individual.

*Forecasting
Business
Conditions*

The other article that we do not hesitate to recommend for summer reading is by Mr. George E. Roberts, and it summarizes business conditions during the first half of 1925, with a view to helping the citizen or the wage-earner estimate the prospects for a continuance of normal conditions during the remaining half of the year. Mr. Roberts grew up in Iowa, where he understood farming, edited a newspaper, and attracted attention by his writing upon monetary and economic questions. For many years he was Director of the Mint at Washington, and he became a recognized world authority upon money, credit, and commerce. As a vice-president of the National City Bank of New York, he is engaged rather in the study of economic conditions for the benefit of the business world than in the daily transactions of a particular banking house. His Wall Street connections have in no way affected the breadth of his views or his devotion to the best welfare of the American people. If we had any ready-made machinery in our office for the holding of competitions and the granting of prizes, we should feel like inviting readers and students to see who could make the best application of the ideas in the articles by Mr. Roberts and Mr. Simonds to the economic prospects of particular trades or neighborhoods in the United States. We make this as a casual suggestion; and some serious-minded employer or some father of promising youngsters may like to try his hand at a home-made plan of prize-giving. A subscription to THE GOLDEN BOOK would make a fitting recompense for the young man or young woman who would thus try his hand at relating the political and economic movements set forth by Messrs. Simonds and Roberts to the family's business, or to the welfare of the immediate locality.

*The
Troubles in
Morocco*

The continuance of fighting in North Africa, and serious civil disturbances in China, constitute the two principal exceptions to the general prevalence of peace throughout the world in this summer of 1925. Spain and France are having a more costly and troublesome time than they had ever counted

upon in subduing the hardy tribesmen of Morocco. Spain had the good fortune to be relieved of her responsibilities in the West Indies and the Philippines a quarter of a century ago. If she could at the same time have renounced her ambitions to rule in North Africa it would have been greatly to her political, military, and pecuniary advantage. France has fully assimilated her older possessions in North Africa, but her adventures in Morocco, while free from any improper motive, seem to have been ill-timed in view of the restless spirit that has made the whole Mohammedan world bitter and aggressive in its attitude toward European imperialism.

*Unrest
in
China*

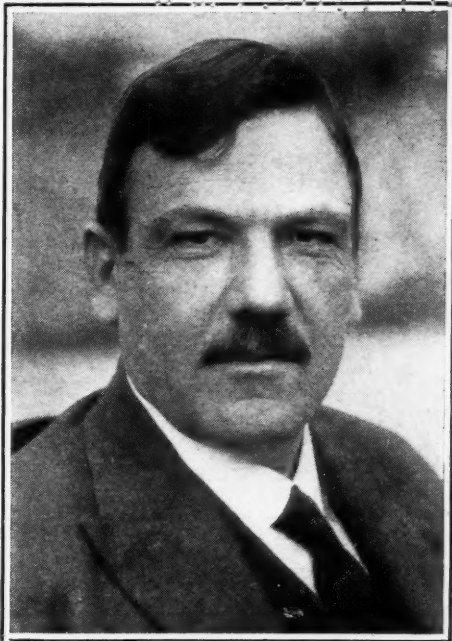
Readers who have a tendency to be disturbed over reports of civil strife and anti-foreign disturbances in China will do well to read Dr. Edmunds' article in this number of the REVIEW. He tells of the vast strides made within the last twenty years in educating the Chinese masses, and it is easy to form the opinion that these sporadic conflicts in China are but minor episodes when compared with real and steady progress made without attracting the whole world's attention. It seems that strikes had been called in Japanese-owned cotton mills, and Chinese strikers had been hampered by police in Shanghai and elsewhere. In Shanghai, on May 30, a crowd of several thousand students staged a demonstration in sympathy with the strikers and directed against foreigners. It was freely reported locally that the disturbances were inspired by Russian Communists. It should be remembered, also, that inciting trouble with foreigners is a favorite method—used frequently in Mexico and other Latin-American republics—of causing embarrassment to the political party in power. The strikes in Shanghai had almost quieted down when a more severe, but wholly Chinese, uprising occurred at Canton. There the conflict was between troops of rival provinces, in which followers of the late Sun Yat-sen, who called himself President of South China, were the defenders and troops from Yun-nan Province seem to have been the aggressors. The invaders were, however, defeated on June 13, with heavy losses. There was no connection between the two stormy episodes, and they were many hundreds of miles apart; but their cumulative effect caused anxiety.

*Mexico
in the News
Once More*

The practical disappearance of sensational news from Mexico, after a dozen years of turmoil, had been taken as a cheering sign that things were going well upon the whole. President Obregon, thanks to the support of the United States, had been succeeded by President Calles after the formalities of a regular election. Agreements had been made with the United States for the settlement of outstanding claims by two joint commissions. Under the policies pursued by Secretary Hughes, and with the backing of American financiers, Mexico was paying interest upon her foreign loans and undertaking to respect the personal and property rights of American citizens. The new American Ambassador to Mexico, Mr. James R. Sheffield of New York, entered upon his duties after his appointment in August, 1924, on October 15. Mr. Sheffield is qualified by character, attainments, and experience to fill any public position with credit to this country; and no one could be chosen for his present post who would be likely to show a more sincere and conciliatory spirit in promoting harmony between the two countries. Several weeks ago he returned from Mexico in order to confer with Secretary Kellogg and President Coolidge on certain aspects of the situation.

*Mr.
Kellogg's
Statement*

On June 12, Secretary Kellogg, after protracted discussions with Mr. Sheffield, and after a conference at the White House, issued a statement on Mexican affairs. Mr. Kellogg assures us that "conditions have improved, and our Ambassador has succeeded in protecting American as well as foreign interests." He continues, "Our relations with the Government are friendly; but nevertheless conditions are not entirely satisfactory, and we are looking to, and expect, the Mexican Government to restore properties illegally taken, and to indemnify American citizens." Much American property in Mexico, the Secretary of State adds, has been taken that has not been properly accounted for; and he intimates that, in view of possible pending revolutionary movements, our Government would like to use its influence to promote Mexican stability. But it would be hard to afford such support if the existing Government were not showing itself both willing and able to do justice to American interests south of the Rio Grande.



PLUTARCO ELIAS CALLES, WHO WAS INAUGURATED AS PRESIDENT OF MEXICO NOVEMBER 30, 1924

*President
Calles
Answers*

President Calles two days later made an official reply to Mr. Kellogg's statement. The Mexican President resents in highly energetic language all imputations, and with great indignation refuses to accept "any foreign interference contrary to the rights of sovereignty of Mexico." The Kellogg memorandum was merely given out as information to this country, and not as a communication to the Government of Mexico. It was wholly friendly in its spirit, and, of course, not intended as a threat. For the United States to abandon the rights of its citizens in Mexico at this time would only lead to a more disagreeable discussion in the future.

*The
President in
Minnesota*

The chief event in the Executive record for June was President Coolidge's trip to Minnesota. On June 8, at the State Fair Grounds, between St. Paul and Minneapolis, in spite of a cold, drizzling rain, a hundred thousand people listened to an address by the President. The occasion was the centennial celebration of the beginnings of Norwegian migration to the United States. Mr. Coolidge made an excellent speech, justly



"WHITE COURT," THE PLEASANT LOOKING HOUSE AT SWAMPSCOTT, ON THE MASSACHUSETTS COAST, IN WHICH PRESIDENT COOLIDGE WILL SPEND A WELL-EARNED SUMMER VACATION

(Last summer, as our readers will remember, President Coolidge remained at the White House in Washington, observing the political campaign and giving constant attention to the affairs of the Government. Secretary Hughes had gone abroad as president of the American Bar Association, and the Dawes plan had been formulated and was under protracted discussion in conferences at London which President Coolidge was following with the utmost care, and in which Ambassador Kellogg and other Americans were participating. This summer the pressure of national and international affairs upon the attention of the President is far less intense than a year ago. He will have his retinue of secretaries at Swampscott, and his facilities for transacting business, but will not be unduly driven, and will doubtless benefit by the change of climate.)



© Stuart F. Ellis

THE RECEPTION-ROOM IN WHITE COURT AT SWAMPSCOTT, GIVING GLIMPSES OF AN INTERIOR OF AGREEABLE COLONIAL DESIGN

praising the fine Scandinavian element of our population that has played so indispensable a part in the making of the Northwestern States. What the President said was appropriate; but what he encountered and learned was even more important. He found that the Northwest approves of his policies of economy, tax-reduction, and insistence upon American rights and dignity in world relations. He discovered that the people of the Northwest had come through great tribulation, but that they are recovering their economic strength and are an indomitable body of fellow citizens, to meet whose approval is enough to thrill the heart of any President.

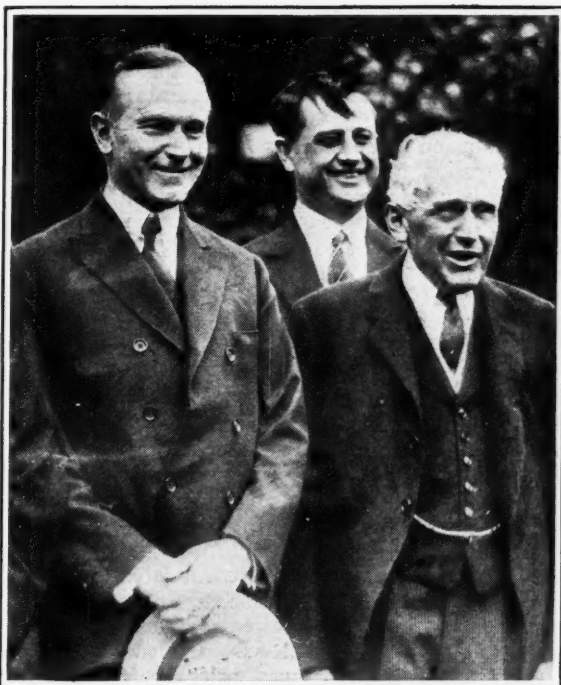
*The
Coolidge
Policies*

It is reported that President Coolidge has returned from

the West strengthened in the belief that the ideas he has tried to embody in Government programs are widely accepted, regardless of party; and that the coming year will witness further tax-reduction, a decrease of public expenditures, some adjustment of the debts due from European governments, and settlement of the World Court issue. The President is convinced that the country does not wish to reopen the tariff question. He finds the price of sugar now so reduced that he believes, in justice to the farmers who raise sugar beets, that the sugar duties ought not to be reduced. A majority of the Tariff Commission had favored a lowering of these duties; but a very marked change in price since the Tariff Board made its report has justified the President in declining to accept the recommendation. To lower the duty and destroy the beet sugar industry would merely create a situation that would bring back the high prices that the commission had intended to combat in suggesting a lower tariff.

*Peru
Coöperates*

The Republic of Peru, which was greatly disappointed over the decision reached at Washington in the arbitration with Chile over the Tacna-Arica dispute, has wisely accepted



PRESIDENT COOLIDGE WITH SECRETARY KELLOGG IN MINNESOTA

(The photograph shown above was taken at a reception at Mr. Kellogg's St. Paul home, and it has caught the expression that characterized a trip which the President enjoyed to the utmost)

the situation, and is preparing to meet it. The Peruvian Senate, on June 12, supported the action of the Minister of Foreign Affairs and approved the appointment of Peruvian members of the commission to arrange for the plebiscite. President Leguia of Peru, on June 4, made the statement that his country would take part in good faith in the election proceedings, and he was highly complimentary over the appointment of Gen. John J. Pershing as head of the commission.

*New York's
Mid-Summer
Politics*

As these pages were closing for the press, New York City was discussing the preliminaries of a mayoralty campaign, and New York State was getting ready for a special session of the legislature called by Gov. Al Smith. Mayor Hylan is a candidate for a third four-year term; but there are large elements in the Democratic party that do not favor him. The Republicans are ready to unite in a non-partisan, anti-Hylan municipal campaign. Behind the scenes there is much discussion of candidates, but decisions may be delayed until September,

the election occurring on November 3. Governor Smith's extra session has to do with legislation in favor of a program of expenditure for public buildings, and a scheme of expansion for State parks. Legislation on these matters failed in the recent session because the Governor and the legislature were unable to agree upon details in the carrying out of lines of policy that everyone admits to be desirable.

*Bureaus
at
Washington*

The Department of Commerce at Washington under Mr. Hoover continues to grow in the range of its functions, and to impress everybody with the energy which it displays in dealing with the nation's economic affairs. A June item of considerable importance is the transfer by executive order of the Bureau of Mines from the Department of the Interior to Mr. Hoover's jurisdiction. Our readers will remember that the Patent Office, with its accumulated traditions and its vast importance to American industry, was also transferred several months ago to the Commerce Department. These happen to be changes which could be made without congressional approval. Various other department shifts are in contemplation, but they cannot be carried out until authorized by law. Secretary Hoover has given much attention to the question of regrouping of government agencies. Among other things, he would relieve the President by bringing many of the independent bureaus under the direction of the major departments that are headed by Cabinet officers. The Shipping Board and the Veterans' Bureau are cited by Mr. Hoover as instances of our most glaring and disastrous mistakes in organization. One of the foremost questions before the country is that of our merchant marine; and this is a subject to which we shall return in the near future with the publication of a careful and authoritative article.

*Rubber
Soaring
in Price*

Indignant and somewhat sensational comments have been called forth in America by the rapid rise in the price of rubber—and more especially by the part in that rise played by the British "Stevenson Act," restricting production. Last year, raw rubber sold as low as 17 cents a pound; within recent weeks the price has reached 78 cents and later fluctuated between 60 and 70 cents a pound. An inquiry into the

situation by our Department of Commerce has been the basis of outraged statements that this extraordinary increase in the price of rubber, due largely to the artificial influence of British restriction, will make America's rubber bill for 1925 amount to \$400,000,000, instead of last year's cost of \$185,000,000, and that this extra profit alone will pay Great Britain's yearly interest on her debt to us. This might well be true if one were sure that the price of rubber would hold at or around 70 cents throughout the period of British debt payments; but nothing could be more unlikely. These restrictions on production are of such a nature that they automatically lose force as the price of rubber goes up; in other words, the higher the price, the more rubber will be offered in the markets of the world.

*America
the Great
Consumer*

Largely because of the motor-car industry and the huge production of tires, the United States is far and away the most considerable buyer of rubber in the world, using 70 per cent. of the entire output, or about 400,000 tons a year out of a total world production of 530,000 tons. This business of growing rubber has had a rather curious history. Until near the close of the last century, the entire world supply came from the natural trees in Brazil. In 1886 the British tropical gardeners succeeded in smuggling Brazilian rubber plants out of that country and making them grow in the East Indies. To-day only 5 per cent. of the world's rubber supply comes from Brazil, all of the remainder being grown on plantations in the East Indies, of which the British own about 69 per cent. and the Dutch 31 per cent. The entire investment in this new East Indian rubber farming amounts to something like \$876,000,000.

*How British
Restriction
Works*

This healthy young industry fell on parlous days in the industrial chaos after the World War. In 1913 the price of rubber had reached \$1.20; in the years immediately succeeding the war it got as low as 11 cents. The East Indian rubber planters found themselves faced with ruin, and the Colonial office came to their aid with the so-called Stevenson plan for restricting the output of rubber when the price was low and allowing successive increments of production as prices went up. This was

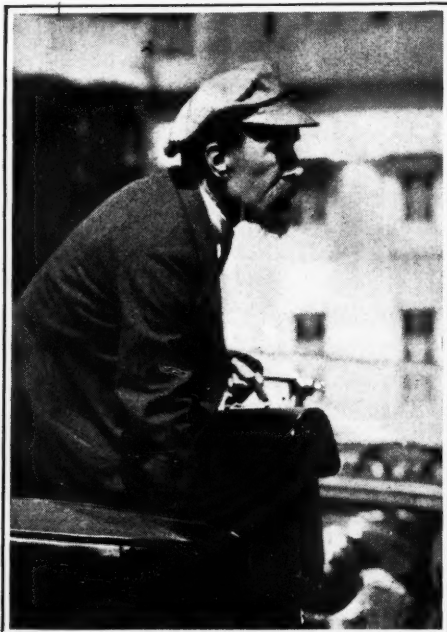


CHICAGO'S GREAT UNION RAILROAD STATION, WHICH IS NOW OPEN AND IN USE

(The building of this magnificent station has taken ten years, and, with its accompanying train sheds, it occupies about thirty-five acres. It is made accessible by a number of new viaducts that carry important thoroughfares east and west from Canal Street to the Chicago River. Four railroad systems will use the new station: the Pennsylvania, the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Chicago and Alton, and the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul)

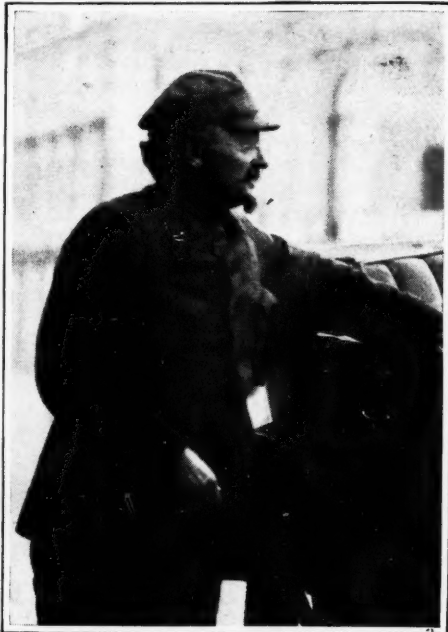


A GLIMPSE OF INTERIOR ARCHITECTURE IN THE NEW UNION STATION AT CHICAGO



PREMIER RYKOV, NOW HEAD OF THE RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT, AS HE APPEARED AT THE RECENT FEDERAL CONGRESS OF SOVIETS HELD IN MOSCOW

(The picture shows him arriving at the Grand Theater in an automobile. Rykov, it will be remembered, succeeded Lenin as head of the Soviet government in Russia)



TROTZKY AGAIN IN OFFICE AND AUTHORITY

(Just as sympathetic visitors to Soviet Russia were bringing out whole volumes to explain Trotsky's fall from power and his banishment from Moscow, their effect was spoiled by Trotsky's return from his needed rest and vacation in the Caucasus, and he is now at the head of the economic administration. The picture shows him, also, arriving to attend the Federal Congress)



THE RATHER UN-IMPRESSIVE LOOKING GROUP IN THE PICTURE AT THE LEFT IS MADE UP OF THREE MEN WHO EXERCISE IMMENSE POWER AS CHIEFS AND PROPAGANDISTS IN THE COMMUNIST MOVEMENT

(The first is Commissary Stalin, the second Commissary Kubyisheff, and the third Karl Radek, whose name is familiar as an indefatigable promoter of the cause of the Third Internationale throughout Europe)

managed by setting a certain standard of production for each company, and allowing 60 per cent. of this standard production to be exported at a minimum rate of duty while all exports above 60 per cent. bore heavy graduated surtaxes. In addition there is an ingenious provision for proportioning the amount of rubber which might be exported under the minimum duty to the price of rubber in London. This complicated arrangement has apparently had its part in bringing the recent extraordinary recovery in price even though the British have never been able to persuade the Dutch to work under the Stevenson plan. Meanwhile, the output of the Dutch East Indies is growing very fast under encouragement of the high prices.

Burning "Gas" by the Billion Gallons The oil industry has for many months suffered some depression because of overproduction and the necessity for storing unbelievable quantities of petroleum not demanded for current uses. The Bureau of Mines reported in June, however, that so far as concerns the gasoline branch of the petroleum industry, the turn had now come and that in spite of the record-breaking production, the millions of motor cars and other users of gas-driven engines have been so busy that on May 1 the surplus supply of gasoline in the United States amounted to only 58 days' supply, the smallest since 1921. Due to the enormous output of the Smackover field in Arkansas the heavy fuel oil is in a different statistical position, with April establishing a new high record of production for all time. Oil men were praying last winter that no new fields should come in to disturb the balance of production and consumption, when in February this Smackover field—which had been furnishing oil for many years—suddenly discovered a reserve supply in the "deep sand" and within a few weeks increased its output to over 350,000 barrels per day.

Will Our Gasoline Give Out? In 1914 the motor manufacturers produced 569,000 cars and the oil refiners 1,500,000, 000 gallons of gasoline; 1919 brought 1,974,000 cars and 3,958,000,000 gallons of gasoline, while last year's figures were 3,561,000 passenger cars and trucks and 8,959,000,000 gallons of gasoline. Can we go on using up the mineral at this rate without coming to a gasoline famine, and

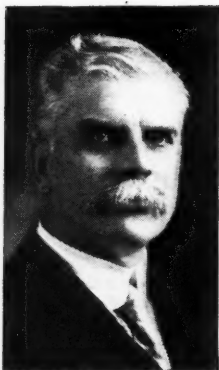
enormously high prices? Now and again some person of authority announces that our oil reserves will be exhausted in ten or fifteen or twenty years. A Federal Oil Conservation Board, consisting of the Secretaries of War, Navy, Interior, and Commerce is now functioning. It is working with the aid of leaders in the oil industry, studying ways and means to save our oil reserves, avoid waste, and develop new sources of supply from shale and distillates. The old heads in the industry are confident that as petroleum threatens to become scarce and prices rise, new supplies of oil will come in which it does not pay to develop at present. They look for better methods of production and a more economical utilization of the precious product, both of which will tend to conserve the oil reservoirs.

We Must Look Abroad

There is little doubt, however, that we shall be forced to look increasingly to other countries to supply us with petroleum. The United States Geological Survey has estimated within recent years that about 20 per cent. of the world's supply of unmined petroleum was in the United States and Alaska—9,150,000,000 barrels. Since this estimate, some 2,000,000,000 barrels have been taken out of the ground, and, on the other hand, new producing fields have been developed. When we turn our eyes abroad for additional supplies of this vital industrial necessity, we find some 13 per cent. of the world's estimated world supply in Russia and Siberia, about the same amount in Persia and Mesopotamia, and over 30 per cent. in Mexico and South America. Thus, it is obviously to the south of us, on this hemisphere, that we must chiefly turn for our future supply of fuel and lubrications.

Our European Debts

In May our State Department suggested through its Ambassadors and Ministers to the countries in debt to us that the time had arrived for something concrete in the way of funding negotiations. Of our various debtors growing out of the World War, Great Britain, Hungary, Finland, Lithuania and Poland have already funded their debts to us. Nine nations who are now in line to follow this example are France, Italy, Belgium, Greece, Rumania, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Estonia, and Latvia. This is a complete roster of our foreign



© Harris & Ewing

Warren S. Stone



Camille Flammarion



Nelson A. Miles



© Underwood

Thomas R. Marshall

FOUR DISTINGUISHED NAMES THAT APPEARED IN THE MONTH'S OBITUARY RECORD

debtors with whom we have not yet made formal arrangements, with the exception of Russia, Armenia and Liberia. The total amount owed us by the nine nations mentioned above is now \$6,732,000,000; with France accounting for more than half of the total—\$3,925,000,000; Italy \$2,081,000,000, and Belgium \$460,000,000. It is understood that the direct negotiations for the funding of these war debts will take place in Washington. This is obviously necessary, as Secretaries Kellogg, Mellon, and Hoover act as members of the American Debt Commission. The approaches and parleys in this big transaction have been conducted, naturally, with delicacy and courtesy, but there is real force behind our suggestions resulting from the desire and need of European countries for further American loans. The Department of Commerce fixes the total of our foreign investments at about \$9,000,000,000, last year bringing an increase of more than \$1,000,000,000. Europe will want more and more. The United States is the one great reservoir of credit to-day. If Europe is to have further access to it, it is only right and orderly that she should make a fair adjustment of these war-time debts.

*The
Obituary
Record*

The list of names in our obituary column includes some notable Americans. Foremost is that of the former Vice-President, Thomas R. Marshall, of Indiana, a citizen universally respected and much admired for his independence of character and his quiet flow of wit and humor. The eminent personages of the World War are passing away, one

by one, and among these who have died within our month occurs the name of Field Marshal French, the English leader who was so prominent in 1914 as the commander of England's First Army, and who was afterward rewarded with the title of Earl of Ypres. In France, on June 4, the world famous astronomer, Camille Flammarion, died at the age of eighty-three. Just after these pages had closed for the press last month occurred the death of Gen. Nelson A. Miles, at the age of eighty-five. He had fought Indians in his youth and had commanded the American forces in the Spanish War. On May 26, Dr. Ernest D. Burton, president of the University of Chicago, died in his seventieth year. He had succeeded President Judson only two years ago, but had been connected with the university for more than thirty years, and was an eminent scholar and theologian. One of the most typical American labor leaders of our generation was Warren S. Stone, head of the locomotive engineers, who died suddenly in June, at Cleveland, Ohio, where he had long resided. Mr. Stone was a man of sterling qualities, of tenacious will, and of all the virtues that make the sound American citizen. He had led the intelligent men who comprise the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers in a coöperative policy that had resulted in the establishment of banks and other successful business enterprises. On June 15 occurred the death of Julius Kruttschnitt, for many years head of the Southern Pacific Railroad, at the age of seventy. He had been connected with that system for forty years.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From May 15 to June 15, 1925)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

May 15.—South Carolina secures the services of Rear Adm. Samuel McGowan, U. S. N., retired, as State Highway Commissioner.

May 16.—The Interstate Commerce Commission orders an investigation of the management and financing of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad recently placed in receivership.

May 20.—The Wisconsin Assembly passes, by vote of 51 to 34, a Senate bill calling for a State referendum in 1926 on 2.75 per cent. beer.

Former Governor Jonathan M. Davis, of Kansas, is acquitted of bribery.

May 21.—Secretary Hoover speaks before the Chamber of Commerce of the United States on the chaos in government boards and commissions.

May 22.—Rum ships, raided at New York and Boston, by the Coast Guard, yield confiscated liquor worth \$300,000.

Secretary Hoover opens the Fish Conservation Conference at Washington, D. C.

May 25.—John T. Scopes, a high-school teacher at Dayton, Tenn., is indicted for teaching evolution "against the peace and dignity of the State," which is a misdemeanor under the anti-evolution law passed by the recent legislature.

The Supreme Court holds unanimously that newspapers may publish names of payers and amounts of income-tax payments.

George H. Williams, of St. Louis, is appointed by Governor Baker of Missouri to fill the unexpired term of the late United States Senator Spencer.

May 27.—A Washington, D. C., grand jury reindicts Albert B. Fall, Edward L. Doheny, and Harry F. Sinclair for alleged conspiracy to defraud the Government but there is no new indictment for bribery; the original indictments were quashed on technical grounds.

Governor Silzer of New Jersey names a commission to organize a celebration of American independence; the secretary is Walter O. Lochner, of Trenton.

Vice-President Dawes speaks on reform of Senate rules with Senator Underwood, at Birmingham.

The Shipping Board authorizes the sale of 200 vessels for scrap.

May 28.—The Government wins its suit at Los Angeles to cancel the lease of naval oil-reserve lands, in 1922, to private interests; Federal Judge McCormick decides that the contracts are void for fraud and conspiracy.

The Interstate Commerce Commission hears O. P. Van Sweringen tell the story of the proposed Nickel Plate railroad merger.

May 29.—An aviation report is made to President Coolidge by a group of experts, who state that the \$19,193,375 appropriated for military construction will sustain the aircraft industry next fiscal year; a federal body to regulate commercial aviation is recommended.

May 30.—President Coolidge delivers a Memorial Day address at Arlington Cemetery, urging better local government.

Governor General Leonard Wood begins a campaign to raise \$1,000,000 for the Filipino leper colony at Culion Island.

June 1.—The Supreme Court holds invalid the Oregon law requiring attendance of children at public schools, saying "the child is not the mere creature of the State."

Pennsylvania loses its inheritance-tax suit in the U. S. Supreme Court against the Frick Estate, the tribunal holding that levy may not be made on gross estates not wholly located within the State.

The Sherman Anti-Trust law is interpreted by the Supreme Court as not forbidding trade associations from gathering and disseminating information as to costs and quantity of production of their members.

A State census is begun in New York.

William Burgess, of Brooklyn, N. Y., resigns from the Tariff Commission.

June 3.—President Coolidge addresses the Naval Academy graduating class of 438 men, suggesting that they be cautious against jingoism and work to promote honorable peace through reason rather than force.

June 4.—The Bureau of Mines is transferred by executive order from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Commerce.

June 5.—William D. Mitchell, of St. Paul, is appointed Solicitor General, succeeding James M. Beck, retired.

June 6.—Surgeon-General Hugh S. Cumming appoints a commission under the Public Health Service to study the hazards of tetraethyl lead gasoline and report by January 1, 1926.

Porter J. McCumber is named to succeed the late Charles E. Townsend on the International Joint Commission; Albertus Hutchinson Baldwin succeeds W. S. Culbertson, resigned, as a member of the Tariff Commission.

June 8.—President Coolidge addresses 100,000 Norsemen and other citizens at the centennial of the first Norse immigration; he says, "if fraternity and cooperation are possible on the scale of this continent, among people so widely diverse, why not on the scale of a world?"

June 10.—Governor Smith summons the New York legislature to meet in special session to reconsider its park program.

In Ohio, J. E. Russell, former State prohibition director, is convicted of conspiracy to violate the law he was hired to execute.

The New York Commissioner of Motor Vehicles, Charles A. Hartnett, reports that, up to June 1, 1922 automobile licenses were revoked, 686 for drunkenness; and 2429 were suspended, of which 640 were for serious accidents, 634 for reckless driving, and 255 for intoxication.

June 11.—In New Jersey Chancellor Walker

appoints a commission to revise and simplify the State laws for the first time in fifty years.

June 12.—Senator Oscar W. Underwood speaks at Montgomery, Ala., in advocacy of reduction of surtaxes on incomes to a maximum of 13 per cent.

June 14.—President Coolidge refuses to accept the conflicting reports of the Tariff Commission filed a year ago recommending a reduction in sugar duties; there will be no change in the rate under the "flexible" provision of the law.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

May 15.—The Italian Chamber of Deputies passes Mussolini's bill granting woman suffrage in municipal elections.

May 17.—King Alfonso of Spain, at the request of Gen. Primo de Rivera, lifts the state of siege that has prevailed since September 15, 1923, and restores constitutional guarantees.

May 18.—German Foreign Minister Stresemann outlines before the Reichstag a foreign policy based on loyal execution of the Dawes plan, no matter what ministries or parliamentary majorities may prevail.

South Africa returns to the gold standard.

The Italian Senate passes the Army reform bill, 160 to 28; it is criticized as putting the Navy in a secondary place, but Premier Mussolini says the Army has always held first place and there must be a single responsible head over all armed forces; Navy estimates are adopted, 140 to 48.

May 19.—French Cabinet leaders begin consideration of a program for settling foreign debts.

The Italian Chamber unanimously adopts Premier Mussolini's bill against secret societies; it is a Fascisti measure against freemasonry, which permeates Italian politics.

May 20.—The German Reichstag defeats a motion by the Socialists for lack of confidence in the Luther Cabinet, voting 214 to 129; the issue hangs largely on proposed protective tariffs.

Gerardo Machado is sworn in as the fifth President of Cuba, succeeding Alfredo Zayas.

Lord Allenby resigns as High Commissioner of Egypt, and is succeeded by Sir George Lloyd, former Governor of Bombay. . . . Field Marshal Herbert C. O. Plumer succeeds Sir Herbert Louis Samuel as High Commissioner for Palestine.

May 21.—In the Province of Ontario, Canada, 4.4 per cent. beer is dispensed in hotels and restaurants after a period of prohibition.

The British House of Lords votes down, 80 to 78, Lord Astor's bill permitting peeresses in their own right to sit as members.

May 22.—The French Cabinet approves Finance Minister Caillaux's plans to raise 1,500,000,000 francs to cover the budget deficit for 1925; tobacco taxes are raised 450,000,000 and telegraph and postal revenues will increase 150,000,000 francs.

May 27.—J. G. Coates is chosen Premier of New Zealand, succeeding the late W. F. Massey.

D'Annunzio and Premier Mussolini of Italy are reported reconciled after a meeting at Gardone.

June 2.—British troops on the Afghan border are reinforced.

June 5.—The Italian Chamber passes three Senate bills consolidating the Army, Navy, and Aviation Services under unified command of the General Staff.

June 6.—At Canton, China, Gen. Yang Hsi-min, heading the Yunnanese invaders, controls the city and declares civil war against the Kuomintang (the late Sun Yat-sen's People's party).

The general election in New South Wales results in victory for the Labor party, which holds 46 seats in the Legislative Assembly; the Nationalists hold 35 seats, and the Progressives 9.

June 7.—The Italian people celebrate the twenty-fifth anniversary of the reign of King Victor Emmanuel III.

June 9.—Premier Painlevé leaves Paris for Morocco by airplane, to consult Marshal Lyautey.

June 10.—The Presbyterian, Methodist, and Congregational Churches of the Dominion of Canada unite under the name of the United Church of Canada.

June 11.—At Hankow, China, 8 Chinese rioters are killed and many wounded when they attack the British volunteer armory; the American gunboat *Pampanga* is fired on near Whampoa, and returns the fire.

The miners in the coal fields at New Waterford, Nova Scotia, fight with the British Empire Steel Corporation police and dismantle the company's power plant; 500 soldiers are sent from Halifax.

Premier Painlevé visits the Sultan of Morocco, Malai Yusef, promising French loyalty and maintenance of his authority.

Premier Baldwin announces there will be a new parliamentary Under Secretary for Dominion Affairs and that Lieutenant-Colonel Amory will be Secretary for the Dominions as well as for the Colonies.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

May 15.—The International Police Conference at New York adopts a resolution favoring fingerprinting and registration of aliens and also a series of recommendations for regulating automobile traffic.

May 16.—It is learned that the United States Government has suggested settlement of war debts would not be unwelcome from France, owing \$3,924,867,744.17; Italy, \$2,080,780,147.21; Belgium, \$459,919,945.04; Greece, \$16,468,846.66; Rumania, \$44,451,166.95; Czechoslovakia, \$117,374,917.61; Jugoslavia, \$64,058,338.68; Esthonia, \$17,794,020.28; and Latvia, \$6,225,873.26.

May 17.—Deputy Malvy, of France, confers with Spanish cabinet ministers on a mission to secure greater freedom of action against the Rifians in the Moroccan campaign.

May 18.—The Geneva Conference decides in special committee to drop plans for a central arms traffic office appointed by the League Council, but agrees to abolish the central board too, and each state will publish its own statistics.

May 19.—President Benes, Foreign Minister of Czechoslovakia, is elected head of the International Labor Conference at Geneva.

May 22.—Sir Esme Howard, British Ambassador, in a speech before the Iron and Steel Institute at New York, says, "If people would only begin to think in terms of real economics instead of politics, there would soon be an end of suspicion and fear and desire for revenge, because it would be understood that the ruin of one's neighbor inevitably harms oneself."

May 24.—American officials leave Washington for the Irish Free State to test immigration inspection at the source instead of at the port of entry.

The French Army of 50,000 troops in Morocco, now under command of General Daugan, is withdrawn to the southern side of Ouergha River.

May 29.—The Belgian Government notifies the United States that she is willing to negotiate a debt funding settlement by a commission to be headed by Foreign Minister Theunis.

May 30.—At Shanghai, China, 3,000 Chinese riot in connection with a strike in a Japanese textile factory, and nine Chinamen are killed.

The Conference of Ambassadors at Paris agrees on a note to Germany, listing military defaults which have occasioned the continued occupation of Cologne; reparations payments admittedly have been faithfully made.

The Council of Ambassadors refuses Bulgaria's request to keep under arms the extra troops recently enlisted to put down an uprising.

Col. James A. Logan resigns as American observer on the Reparation Commission.

June 1.—Premier Painlevé, speaking at Strasbourg, says "the day will dawn . . . when peoples will throw down barriers of egotism and hate which separate them and will each develop its own genius, not for mutual destruction but for common action in the struggle against plagues which afflict humanity, irrespective of race and country."

Effect is given to international regulations agreed upon between Britain, France, and Spain in December, 1923, for governing Tangier.

June 2.—The Italian banks of issue secure a loan of \$50,000,000 from J. P. Morgan & Co.

American marines are landed at Shanghai, where Chinese students and laborers are rioting.

June 5.—The text of the Allied note to Germany, charging violation of military provisions of the peace treaty, is published.

June 6.—The Arms Conference at Geneva opens for signature the draft of the protocol against poison gas in warfare; the General Committee passes through second reading the draft convention, accepting the categories of arms whose export is forbidden and listing for publicity upon sale for export aircraft and war vessels.

June 8.—Great Britain agrees to the French note in reply to Germany's security proposals; she will aid either nation, if invaded by the other, and Belgium will be a party to the final treaty, which will require German membership in the League.

June 9.—Italy approves the proposed German western boundary security agreement and expresses the hope she may be included if the treaty is extended to other German borders.

Sir Esme Howard, British Ambassador to Washington, leaves on a vacation until October.

June 10.—Dr. Jacob Gould Schurman, the new American Ambassador to Germany, sails from New York to assume his post at Berlin.

June 11.—The League Council ends its session and adjourns until September 4; a commission of three experts will be appointed to determine the Port of Danzig so as to carry out the decision of the World Court that Poland may maintain letter boxes in the port.

Foreign Secretary Briand and Theodore E. Burton of the American Debt Funding Commission confer at Geneva.

June 12.—Secretary of State Kellogg issues a warning saying the United States will support President Calles of Mexico only if American lives and property are protected, after consultations with Ambassador Sheffield, Senator Borah, Attorney-General Sargent, and President Coolidge.

W. A. Harriman & Co. get the Russian Soviet concession to exploit the Manganese mines of Chiatouri, Georgia.

The Peruvian Senate approves the Tacna-Arica plebiscite.

June 13.—At Kiu-Kiang, China, the British and Japanese consulates are burned by mobs; Canton is recaptured by Kwangtung troops led by Bolshevik officers; the Peking Government protests to Great Britain against killing of Chinese at Hankow and Shanghai recently.

The Peruvian Chamber of Deputies approves the Tacna-Arica plebiscite plan.

June 14.—President Calles replies to the American declaration, maintaining that the Mexican Government is conscious of its obligations and determined to comply with them.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

May 17.—Pope Pius XI begins a series of jubilee-year canonizations by sainting a French nun named Sister Therese of the Infant Jesus.

May 18.—The Rt. Rev. Joseph Chartrand (Catholic) is promoted to Archbishop of Cincinnati, and Mgr. MacNicholas, Bishop of Duluth, is transferred to Indianapolis.

May 20.—The motor speedboat *Teaser* beats the time of the Twentieth Century Limited by 27 minutes, between New York and Albany, averaging 52 miles an hour for 150 miles.

At Charlotte, N. C., the 150th anniversary of the Mecklenburg "Declaration of Independence" is celebrated.

Glenn Frank, editor of the *Century Magazine*, accepts the presidency of the University of Wisconsin.

May 21.—The Presbyterian General Assembly, at Columbus, elects Rev. Dr. Charles R. Erdman, of Princeton Theological Seminary, as moderator.

At the Hall of Fame, New York City, busts are unveiled of John Marshall, Gen. William Tecumseh Sherman, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Charlotte Cushman, and Asa Gray.

May 23.—At Toyo-Oka, Japan, some 278 persons are killed by earthquake.

A tidal wave ruins much property along the southern shore of Lake Ontario, reaching its highest variation at Sodus Point and Oswego.

May 24.—The New York Zoological Park receives seventy heretofore unexhibited reptiles from Africa.

May 25.—The Presbyterian General Assembly approves a plan to unite the Cleveland Presbytery with the local Congregational Church.

May 27.—Near Coal Glen, N. C., 71 miners are imprisoned underground by an explosion.

May 28.—The American Medical Association, in annual session at Atlantic City, demonstrates the telephoto process by holding a diagnosis of a heart case with a physician in Chicago.

Rev. Dr. Harry Emerson Fosdick accepts the offer of the Park Avenue Baptist Church of New York to preach on his own terms, with absolute freedom from dogma and creedism.

May 20.—Wellesley College celebrates its fiftieth anniversary.

June 2.—Bankers for the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad Company announce a plan for reorganization to take the road out of receivership.

June 3.—At Miami, Florida, plans are announced for the foundation of a University of Miami, with \$15,000,000 endowment.

John Russell Pope is chosen as architect of the Theodore Roosevelt Memorial in New York City.

June 5.—William MacFarlane beats Robert T. Jones for the "open" golf championship of America, at Worcester, Mass.

June 6.—More than 300 persons perish during a week of suffering from an almost unprecedented heat-wave covering all sections of the country.

The steamer *Ingetre* leaves Norway to search for Roald Amundsen, the polar explorer.

Cambridge University (England) prohibits freshmen from using automobiles and limits their use by upper classmen between 12:30 P. M. and 10 P. M.

June 7.—The Rev. Dr. Ernest M. Stires accepts his election as Bishop coadjutor of the Episcopal Diocese of Long Island.

June 11.—The Rt. Rev. John Gregory Murray (Catholic) is appointed Bishop of Portland, Me.

Secretary of Labor Davis arranges a conference to settle the plasterer-bricklayer dispute, which has tied up \$100,000,000 of building construction.

June 12.—The Metropolitan Museum of Art, with \$600,000 furnished by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., buys from George Grey Barnard, the sculptor, his collection of Gothic art and his building called The Cloisters in New York City.

June 14.—A School of Aeronautics is endowed for New York University by Daniel Guggenheim, who contributes \$500,000.

OBITUARY

May 15.—Lt.-Gen. Nelson Appleton Miles, U. S. A., retired, veteran of the Civil War and Indian conflicts, 85.

May 16.—Seldon Palmer Spencer, U. S. Senator from Missouri, 63. . . . Henry F. Schwarz, New York toy dealer, 59. . . . Maurice Manoury, former French cabinet minister.

May 17.—Josiah Dallas Dort, of Flint, Mich., automobile manufacturer, 64. . . . Rev. Aloysius Laurence Cortie, S. J., English astronomer, 66. . . . Charles William Penrose, Mormon High Priest, 93. . . . Frederic S. Nock, Connecticut yacht builder. . . . Stephen Hills Parker, portrait painter, 73.

May 20.—Elias Milton Ammons, formerly Governor of Colorado, 65. . . . Maj.-Gen. George Sterling Ryerson, retired, Surgeon-General of Canada, 70.

May 21.—Dr. Samuel Taylor Darling, malaria expert, 53.

May 22.—Field Marshal John Denton Pinkstone French, Earl of Ypres, 72. . . . Samuel Appleton, editor, of St. Paul, 83. . . . Rev. Seth Joshua, Welsh evangelist.

May 23.—Sir Edward Hulton, British newspaper publisher, 55.

May 26.—Dr. Ernest De Witt Burton, president of University of Chicago, 69. . . . Lieut.-Col.

Charles A'Court Repington, noted British war correspondent. . . . Dr. George Burton Adams, of Yale, historian, 74.

May 27.—John De Witt Warner, New York lawyer, 73.

May 28.—Maj.-Gen. Sir Edward Whipple Bancroft Morrison, Canadian artillery expert, 58. . . . Joao Chagas, former Premier of Portugal, 62.

May 29.—Donn Barber, noted architect and president of the Architectural League of New York, 53. . . . John Mason Clarke, geologist, director of the New York State Museum, 68. . . . Rev. W. S. Pummer Bryan (Presbyterian), of Chicago, 69.

May 30.—James Luby, a prominent New York newspaper editor.

May 31.—Louis Arthur Coolidge, former Assistant Secretary of Treasury, of Milton, Mass., 64. . . . Charles B. Lawlor, who wrote the song, "Sidewalks of New York," 73. . . . Joachim Gotsche Giaver, Chicago structural engineer, 69.

June 1.—Thomas Riley Marshall, former Vice-President and ex-Governor of Indiana, 71. . . . Brig.-Gen. Charles E. L. B. Davis, U. S. A., retired, 81. . . . Lucien Guitry, famous French actor, 65. . . . Major A. J. Twiggs, well-known Confederate veteran and Georgia engineer.

June 2.—John Kennedy Tod, banker, 72. . . . Edward Wallis Hoch, former Governor of Kansas, 76. . . . Enoch Lewis White, Washington lawyer, 65.

June 3.—The Very Rev. Dr. John W. Moore, C.M., New York educator, 64. . . . John Wolcott Adams, artist and illustrator, 51.

June 4.—Camille Flammarion, noted French astronomer and author, 83. . . . Lue Gim Gong, Chinese grapefruit expert in Florida, 70. . . . Pierre Louys, French novelist, 53. . . . Dr. John Addison Fordyce, noted dermatologist, 66.

June 5.—Charles Woodruff Halsey, merchant, 48. . . . Charles William Fisk, journalist, 76. . . . Walter R. Bradford, Philadelphia cartoonist, 53. . . . Emile Etard, French importer, in New York, 63. . . . Vance Thompson, novelist and short-story writer, 62.

June 6.—Col George Taylor Denison, Canadian military expert, 85. . . . I. Minis Hays, Philadelphia physician, long secretary of the American Philosophical Society, 77.

June 7.—Prof. Mansfield Merriman, of Lehigh University, 77.

June 8.—Prof. Charles Densmore Curtis, archaeologist, 49.

June 10.—Dr. Antoine Depage, noted Belgian surgeon, 66. . . . Christiaan Krieus, famous Dutch conductor and clarinetist, 72.

June 11.—Rt. Rev. Hubert Murray Burge, Bishop of Oxford, England, 62. . . . James E. Jones, newspaper publisher, of Kilbourne, Wis., 77.

June 12.—Warren Stanford Stone, noted railroad labor leader and cooperative banker, 65. . . . Sir William Petersen, British shipping leader, 69.

June 13.—James Holden, monetary expert and author, 79.

June 15.—Julius Kruttschnitt, famous railroad executive, 71. . . . Emanuel Lorenz Philipp, former Governor (1915-21) of Wisconsin, 63.

SUMMER TOPICS, IN CARTOONS



SWEET MUSIC BY THE COOLIDGE-DAWES PAIR

From the *Saturday Evening Post* © (Philadelphia, Pa.)



UNCLE SAM ENJOYS PRETTY GOOD FISHING, FOR AN AMATEUR

From the *News* (Detroit, Mich.)

[The notable success of Uncle Sam in current world trade is discussed in an article by Mr. Roberts, which will be found in this issue beginning on page 35]



EVERYWHERE THAT LIZZIE WENT, THE TAX WAS SURE TO GO

From the *Dispatch* (Columbus, Ohio)

[All but four of the States now impose a tax on gasoline. See the article, page 83]



TO GROW OR NOT TO GROW—THAT IS THE QUESTION

From *Capper's Weekly* (Topeka, Kans.)

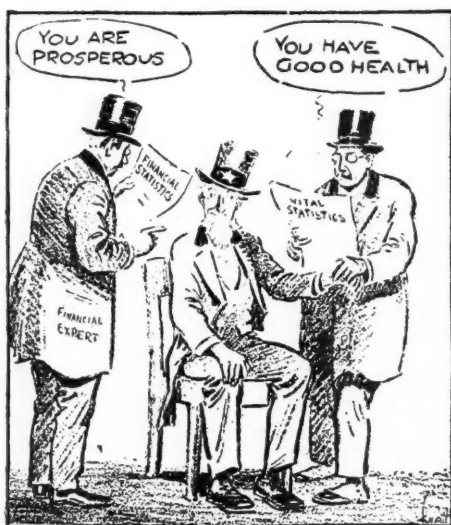


BACK ON A CLEAR AND LEVEL ROAD

From the *Post-Intelligencer* © (Seattle, Wash.)

FINANCIAL and business authorities seem to agree that the country is in sound and prosperous circumstances, and

that there is reason to expect satisfactory conditions to continue. Similar views are reflected in current newspaper cartoons.



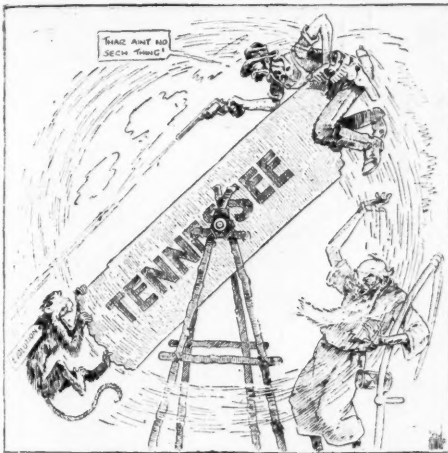
BOTH DOCTORS REPORT, AFTER AN EXAMINATION, THAT THE PATIENT IS "O.K."

From the *News* (Dallas, Texas)



FOR HAVING AN INCOME

From the *Post* (Washington, D. C.)



THE BATTLE-GROUND

From the *Dispatch* (Columbus, Ohio)



THE DESCENT OF MAN

MONKEY (heaving sigh of relief): "Thank Heaven, my good name is vindicated at last. I am not responsible for that."

From the *Star* (Montreal, Canada)



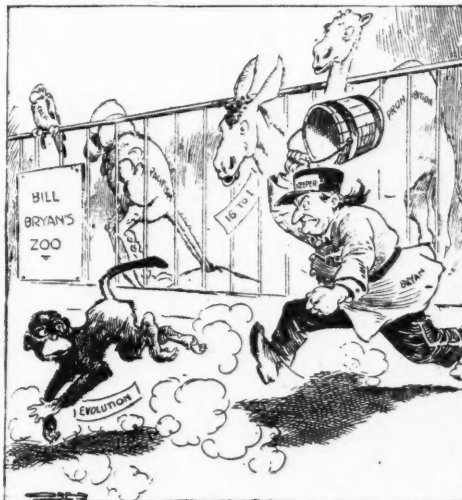
THE RETURN OF THE EXILES: PERSECUTION, FANATICISM, AND INTOLERANCE

From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.)



DOWN IN TENNESSEE

From the *Tribune* (Sioux City, Ia.)



THE OUTCAST IN THE BRYAN ZOO

From the *Tribune* (Chicago, Ill.)



HANDS ACROSS THE SEA

UNCLE SAM: "Say, you guys! I'm through with the gab stuff! Hand over the dough!"

From the *Evening News* (Yorkshire, England)

The question of Europe's overdue settlement of her financial obligations to America has been revived by Uncle Sam's hint to nine debtor nations that some arrangement should be made. It must be remembered that America is not asking for payment at

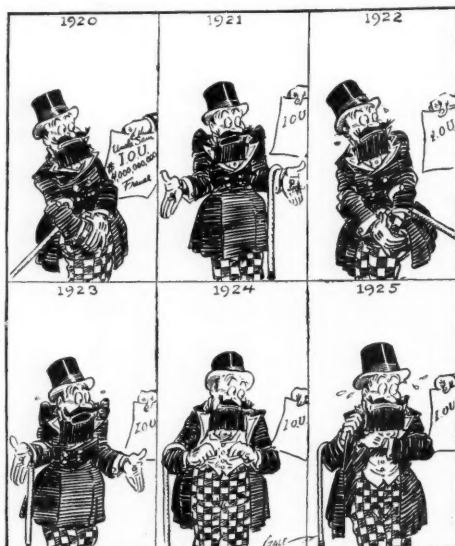


SOME CREDITORS ARE SO INCONSIDERATE

MARIANNE: "Why bring up that subject at such a time. Can't you see I may want to borrow some more, for my Moroccan campaign, instead of paying any back?"

From the *Bulletin* (Glasgow, Scotland)

once, but rather for a new and definite promise to pay and for interest meanwhile. Great Britain in 1923 thus agreed to pay in installments spread over sixty-two years.



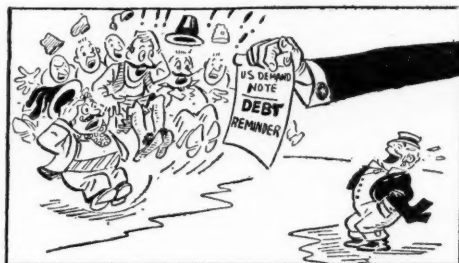
THE ORIGINAL SLOW-MOTION PICTURE

[The European arranging to pay his debts]

From the *Times* (Los Angeles, Cal.)



[When England arranged to pay her debt to Uncle Sam]



[When Uncle Sam's recent reminder was sent]

THE LAST LAUGH

From the *Daily Express* (London, England)



A SLIGHT MISUNDERSTANDING

FRANCE: "How kind you are, Uncle Sam, to offer me all that."
From *Le Cri de Paris* (Paris, France)



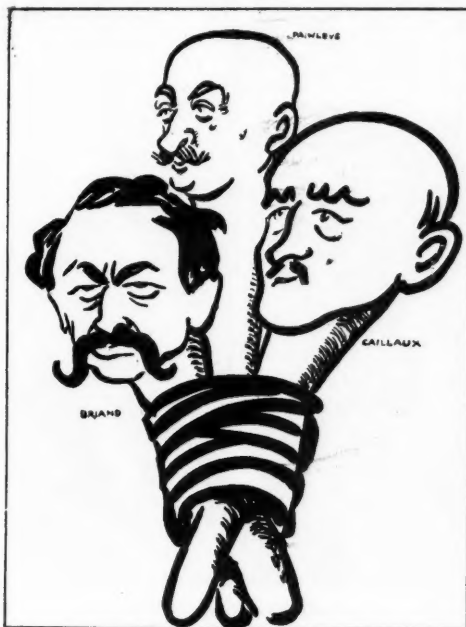
FRANCE AND THE GERMAN EAGLE

How long will she continue in this unwomanly position?
From *Sondagsnisse-Strix* (Stockholm, Sweden)



LENDING MONEY—AND COLLECTING IT—From the *Daily Graphic* (London, England)

[The opinion is being expressed in some quarters that America is "unreasonable" in pressing for money at this time]



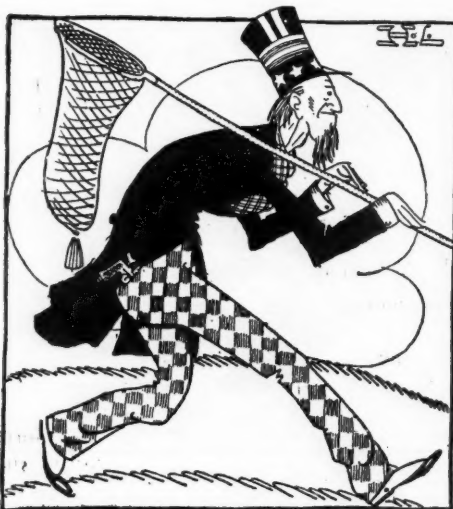
THE NEW FRENCH GOVERNMENT

"In unity there is strength!"
From *Campana de Gracia* (Barcelona, Spain)



WHEN FRANCE CALLS FOR FINANCIAL SACRIFICES

THE CAPITALIST (to the Laborer and the Peasant): "I am quite willing . . . but not alone!"
From *Le Rire* (Paris, France)



AMERICAN FLEET MANEUVERS IN THE PACIFIC

UNCLE SAM: "There's nothing to be caught now in Europe. Let's have a try at Asia!"

From Mucha (Warsaw, Poland)



THE EX-KAISER MAKES PREPARATION

From Guerino Meschino (Milan, Italy)



RESCUING AUSTRIA

JOHN BULL AND THE FRENCH MARIANNE: "Nay, the lifebelt [union with Germany] is not for you; but good Mr. Benes, your Czechoslovak neighbor, will gladly put a rope round your neck to lift you up."

From Magdeburgische Zeitung (Magdeburg, Germany)



A POLISH OPINION OF JOHN BULL

ENGLAND: "It seems that we are arriving at great familiarity with each other!"

BOLSHEVİK: "Yes—our aims are the same!"

From Mucha (Warsaw, Poland)



TAKING ON THE PILOT

[After Tenniel's famous cartoon in *Punch*, when the young Kaiser, in 1890, dropped the pilot Bismarck who as Chancellor had so long guided German affairs]

From Kladderadatsch (Berlin, Germany)

YOUR BUSINESS AND MINE

PROSPECTS IN CROPS, TRADE, AND WORK FOR THE REMAINDER OF THE YEAR

BY GEORGE E. ROBERTS

(Vice-President, National City Bank of New York)

THE year 1925 began with sanguine expectations throughout the business community. Nineteen twenty-four, although not a first-class business year, had brought certain accomplishments in world reconstruction of great importance. Chief among them was the agreement upon reparations, absolutely necessary to the restoration of confidence in Europe; and second only to this was the successful flotation of the foreign loan for Germany, taken mainly in the United States and Great Britain.

This loan for the purpose of reestablishing the economic system of Germany upon a sound monetary base was of great significance, giving recognition to the fundamental truth that notwithstanding all the rivalries, antagonisms, and disagreements which vex international relations, the nations at last are economically interdependent, and obliged to support each other in order to find prosperity for themselves.

Nothing else is so well calculated to restore confidence as evidence that the world is beginning to act upon this truth.

These were leading developments in 1924 affecting basic conditions, but there were others indicating increasing stability in Europe and gradual improvement in world trade and industry. In this country the substantial recovery in the prices of farm products which took place in the last half of that year had a great effect in dispelling pessimism, and finally the large vote cast for President Coolidge as his own successor undoubtedly contributed to the feeling of confidence with which the new year opened.

The vote displayed a unity of sentiment that was stimulating, and altogether these developments were taken as giving assurance that the worst of the post-war period of readjustments and agitation was over, that the people had a rational understanding of the difficulties through which they had been

passing, and that the danger of impatient and radical political action was over.

It may be that the numerous quoted expressions of financial and business authorities at that time produced undue optimism. Our people are quick to discount the future, and when everybody is talking hopefully, expectations are likely to be raised above the possibility of immediate realization.

Undoubtedly disappointment has been prevalent that business in the spring months did not take on more of the activity of March and April, 1923. The latter, however, soon subsided and left a legacy in higher industrial costs which has been a handicap ever since.

The first six months of this year have not been months of depression or dull trade, taking the situation as a whole. Measured by past records the volume of business has been large.

Two Barometers of Trade

The most significant indices of trade activity we have are freight loadings by the railroads and payments through banks; and both of these indicate a volume of business in the first five months of this year in excess of that in the corresponding period of any other year, possibly excepting 1923.

Not only is it a fact that car-loadings in these months exceeded the record made in the corresponding months of 1920, when the post-war boom was at its height, but payments through banks have exceeded those of 1920, notwithstanding the great decline of prices which has taken place since. The aggregate of checks against individual accounts passing through the reporting banks of the Federal Reserve System in May, 1925, exceeded like figures for May, 1924, by 11.6 per cent.

Despite this strong showing, however, it has been apparent that productive capacity in

numerous lines was in excess of the demands of the market, resulting with a number of important industries in short-time operations and quite generally in severe competition and more or less unsatisfactory net earnings.

The Explanation of Overproduction

The common explanation of this situation is that productive capacity has been developed beyond current needs. This is correct as describing the condition of individual industries, but it does not name the real cause.

Mr. Robert S. Brookings, the well-known citizen of St. Louis, president of the corporation of Washington University, president of the Institute of Economic Research and the Institute for Government Research, Washington, D. C., in his little book entitled "Industrial Ownership," says that "overproduction in whole industries is to a great extent the result of underproduction in other industries." That is, it is due to unbalanced relations among the industries.

If the reader will stop to think that all business in the last analysis is simply an exchange of products and services, and that everyone's purchasing power lies in what he himself has for sale, he will see how comprehensive this statement is. Prosperity is a state of balanced industry, in which all the different kinds of goods and services are offered upon the market in such proportions and price-relations that the exchanges are readily made and the market cleared. The accumulation of goods which looks like evidence of general overproduction is due to unbalanced offerings—inability of certain groups of producers to buy the products of others because they cannot sell their own, or for some reason lack the accustomed quantities to sell.

Price Relations

One source of difficulty is unbalanced prices. If the various products and services are now valued to each other in right relations the markets cannot be cleared and goods accumulate. The exchanges are accomplished indirectly, by selling and buying in terms of money; and when the price relations are suddenly changed, trade is thrown into confusion. There may be overproduction of a commodity at a given price when a lower price would move the entire supply into consumption.

The disorganization of trade since the war

has been principally due to the disruption of price relations. In this country we have seen it mainly in the disruption of customary relations between the prices of farm products and other things, and this disparity has existed generally over the world, making an agricultural crisis in many countries.

The farmer must first draw on the proceeds of his crops to pay current operating costs, then to pay interest on his debts if he has any. And when his income was cut practically in two or worse, as happened in some instances, expenditures for everything above his fixed charges were well-nigh eliminated. As a result, the equilibrium of the entire business situation was disturbed.

It might be thought that the low prices of farm products would benefit the workers in other industries, increasing their purchasing power for other things and thus compensating for the loss of farmer buying. The direct effect of the disturbance of price relations, however, is to cause part-time operations and unemployment, resulting in a reduction of actual wages in the industries affected.

Part Time in the Coal Mines

This is illustrated in the coal industry. It was overstimulated and overdeveloped during the war, and has been demoralized ever since. Wages are nominally high, and make high prices for coal to the railroads and all the industries, but actual wages in many cases are very low, owing to the amount of unemployment. The high price of coal enters into the cost of living for everybody, over and over again.

If the coal miners had full-time work at the nominal wages, their buying power would react upon the other industries and compensate them in some degree at least for the higher cost of coal; but this is not the case. The industry itself is not prosperous; its reaction upon the other industries instead of being stimulating is depressing; and the net result is that the country is suffering a waste which restricts prosperity.

High Costs in the Textile Trades

Something is the matter also with the great textile industries making cotton and woolen goods. Some of the oldest companies, highly successful in the past, and whose goods are favorably known to the public, have closed the last two years with deficits; and it has been very difficult for any producers to show reasonable returns on

investments. Operations have been intermittent, which means loss of time and wages to the employees. The prices of goods are very high, compared with pre-war prices.

The largest item in costs is wages, and, as in the coal industry, while wages are nominally high, in many instances they have been actually low, owing to loss of time. The summary of an inquiry by the Bureau of Labor shows that the average of all wage rates in 1924 was 151 per cent. above the average in 1913, or about two and a half times as high. Wage increases, however, have not been the only factor in the high prices of cotton goods.

The boll-weevil has reduced the yield of cotton per acre and increased the cost of the crop to the farmer, hence the cost of the raw material is approximately double what it was before the war. And, finally, higher wages to the workers in the clothing industry has been another factor in raising the price of clothing.

It is said that wages in the textile mills and in the clothing industry were unreasonably low in pre-war years, and that the increases which have been made are no greater than are required to put them on a proper basis. There may be truth in this claim, but however that may be, the fact remains that sudden changes in price relations affect the flow of goods in trade, which in turn causes unemployment with loss of wages and has a depressing reaction upon the business situation. The effect would be the same if wages, by concurrent action of employers, were generally reduced below the accustomed level, thus reducing the purchasing power of millions.

The conditions in these industries have illustrated the disruption of price relations which has made business unstable, uncertain, and spasmodic in the last several years. In the cotton-goods industry wage reductions have been amicably arranged in recent months, and with a larger cotton crop this year the price of the raw material may be favorable to lower prices for the goods. This is part of the process of readjustment which is gradually restoring the normal equilibrium in industry.

Industrial Conditions in Europe

Similar conditions have existed in Europe, and indeed all over the world. The disruption of wage and price relations between Great Britain and the Continent has been very serious, and the competition of Ger-

many especially disturbing. Even in this country there has been concern as to the probable effects of European competition. Notwithstanding the apprehension about German aggression, however, the fact is that German industry has not nearly reached its pre-war position in world trade.

Moreover, it is very significant that in the pre-war years, when Germany was exporting twice as much as now, her imports were practically equaling her exports, which means that her trade was doing as much for the industries of other countries as for her own. That state of pre-war trade shows that the real cause of industrial distress in Europe, after the political controversies in which it originated, has been the general disruption of the trade organization, caused by the unsettlement of wages and prices, and largely resulting from the demoralization of the currencies.

Return to the Gold Standard

Mention already has been made of the good effects of the settlement of the reparations question and the reestablishment of Germany on a gold basis. The governments of Europe, with few exceptions, have mastered the problem of balancing their revenues and expenditures, and even the exceptions are fully aware of the necessity of doing so.

The action of Great Britain in returning to gold, is not only important for what it does in restoring order in monetary affairs, but for the significance it carries as to the judgment of British bankers and business men upon world economic conditions. The ability of Great Britain to maintain gold payments depends upon the state of British foreign trade.

If the payments running to Great Britain are large enough to offset the payments which she has to make, there will be no drain on the gold reserves and the new undertaking will be a success. But even the financial resources of Great Britain are not great enough to enable it to succeed if the tide of payments is steadily against the country. The action that has been taken signifies that in the opinion of London the trend of developments is surely back to normal conditions.

The movement back to the gold standard now has gone so far that the few remaining countries are eager to join it as soon as they can set their affairs in order. It means a practical unification of monetary systems

so far as the influence of money upon prices is concerned, giving once more a common system of values the world over.

The effect is to eliminate the risks in international trade which arise from exchange fluctuations, and there could be no better example of what these have been than has been afforded by the importation of wheat into Great Britain from this country. From September, 1924, to January, 1925, the change in the relation of the pound sterling to the dollar was sufficient to make a difference of 10 cents per bushel in wheat to a British buyer.

The risk of such fluctuations tended to keep foreign dealers from making purchases in this country, except as they could sell immediately to consumers; and this deprived the American grain market of the steadying influence of foreign purchases for future needs at times when prices were depressed. European workers from now on will receive wages in currencies having fixed relations to the currency in which the American farmer is paid for his crops.

Signs of Progress

The restoration of the gold standard is a constructive event which ranks with the reparations agreement and the German loan.

There is in sight the possibility of another such event—an agreement among France, Germany and Great Britain that the boundaries between France and Germany shall remain forever unchanged, Great Britain guaranteeing France against attack by Germany and Germany against attack by France.

Every action of this character which tends to assure stability in world relations, exerts an influence for better business.

Business in the United States

All of these conditions have to do with business in the United States and with the outlook for the second half of 1925 and thereafter. They are fundamentals. We have suffered in the general disturbance of economic conditions the world over, and may look confidently for prosperity as they are brought back to a normal state.

Agriculture has felt the brunt of the disturbance, and the improvement in the agricultural situation has been the development of the past year which has aroused the greatest interest and has had the most direct practical results in the business situation. About the immediate benefits

there is no division of opinion; but, as to its lasting significance, this country in the year to come will depend more upon the yield of the crops now growing—and what the farmers will get from them—than upon any other uncertain factor in the situation.

Prospects of the Cotton Farmer

Cotton is the main source of income to the farmers of our Southern States, from North Carolina to Texas, including Arkansas and Oklahoma. The business structure of these States rests largely on cotton, and of course was greatly shaken when the price fell from 43 $\frac{3}{4}$ cents per pound in 1920 to 11 cents in 1921. In the past, exports have taken one-half or more of our production, the average production in the five years, 1909-'13, being about 13,000,000 bales and average exports about 8,500,000 bales. In 1916 exports fell to 6,696,000, in 1917 to 4,371,000, and in 1918 to 3,967,000 bales. In the five years, 1919-'23, they averaged 6,053,000 bales, or 2,500,000 less than the pre-war average.

This situation was met by reducing production, in which the boll-weevil pest assisted. The crop of 1921 was 7,954,000 bales, that of 1922, 9,760,000 bales, and that of 1923, 10,140,000 bales, but in 1924 production rose to 13,618,000 bales, and with the price ruling at present around 23 cents per pound the position of the cotton-growers is greatly improved. However, with crops of 13,000,000 bales and upwards, the grower needs the pre-war volume of exports, and happily the prospect is good for it, as the following figures show.

Increasing Exports of Cotton

The cotton crop year begins August 1, and the following figures show cotton exports from this country in the period from August 1, 1924, to June 5, 1925, in comparison with those of the corresponding period of the two next preceding years:

*Exported to	AUGUST 1 TO JUNE 5		
	1924-5 Bales	1923-4 Bales	1922-3 Bales
Great Britain....	2,490,783	1,636,875	1,246,930
France.....	869,392	683,925	586,546
Germany.....	1,824,552	1,220,541	860,048
Italy.....	667,757	488,897	445,546
Russia.....	198,486	66,554	290
Japan and China	862,337	573,196	584,749
Other countries..	780,196	502,101	550,562
Total.....	7,693,506	5,222,079	4,274,671

*Compiled by *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*.

Here is a gain in cotton exports in the last ten months of 2,400,000 bales over the corresponding months of the preceding year, and of 3,400,000 bales over the corresponding months of the next preceding year. No trade figures are more significant than those of cotton, for it is the clothing material of the masses. Moreover, it should be considered that it is raw material used by the industries of the importing countries in the manufacture of goods sold not only in their own countries but over the world.

Exports of cotton now are back to about the pre-war rate, and there is reason to believe that this is a permanent recovery. Indeed, since the population of the world is larger than ten years ago, there is bound to be normally an increasing demand for this product of our Southern farmers.

At this writing the outlook for this year's crop is for 14,000,000 to 15,000,000 bales, and the price, 23 cents, compares with the pre-war five-year average of about 12 cents. If the crop turns out larger or smaller than the present promise, the price probably will be lower or higher accordingly. It must be borne in mind that the cost of making the crop has been increased over pre-war costs by the boll-weevil depredations as well as by the general rise of labor and supplies; but the increasing world consumption means larger returns to the producers.

The Wheat Situation

The wheat crop is next to the cotton crop in dependence upon foreign prices. From last year's crop and carry-over, aggregating 972,000,000 bushels, we have exported about 200,000,000 bushels. Last year was an exceptionally favorable year for the wheat growers of this country, for the crops of all the bread grains were light in Europe while in this country the yield was large (averaging about 16 bushels per acre), the quality was excellent, and the price was high, owing to a short crop in Canada as well as Europe.

The price in Chicago ranged from about \$1.15 at the beginning of the season to about \$2.05 in January. The average value to farmers in local markets on December 1, according to the Department of Agriculture, was about \$1.30.

All things considered, there have been few years when the wheat crop paid as well as last year, and it is not likely to be often equaled. This year the yield will be much lower, as the fall sowings winter killed

badly, and what survived has not done well.

The fall-sown crop is estimated at 183,000,000 bushels below that of last year. The spring-wheat acreage is larger than last year and the plant is looking well, but no reliable estimate upon the crop can be made at this time. It would be something remarkable for it to equal last year's yield. If it is only average, the total of wheat will be about 200,000,000 bushels under that of last year.

Since the carry-over is about 50,000,000 bushels less, if the crop shortage proves of this magnitude there will be no wheat to spare for export. In that case the domestic price will be independent of foreign markets and probably well above them. At this writing the Chicago quotation for July delivery is about \$1.60 per bushel, so that the crop will begin to move on a much higher level than last year.

The abandoned acreage, of course, signifies loss, but the land is usually put into other crops and, all things considered, the crop may bring aggregate returns to producers as good as the average.

European grain crops promise to be larger than last year, but stocks are low, and in view of the great price recovery last year it is probable that there will be more courage to carry wheat against future demands than there has been during the period when so much uncertainty existed as to Europe's ability to make purchases and the value of the currencies.

A Better Outlook for Live-Stock

Corn, hogs, and cattle are much more important to the farmers as a whole than wheat, corn being marketed mainly by feeding to live-stock, and last year a short corn crop demoralized this whole system. The price of corn was high, but did not compensate the farmers for the shortage, in view of the effect upon their live-stock operations.

This year the carry-over of corn will be light; and, taking corn, hogs, and cattle together, the prospect for returns in the year to come is better than at any time in the last five or six years. Hog prices are 60 per cent. higher than a year ago.

The cattle industry has suffered terribly in recent years from enforced liquidation of indebtedness contracted in the period of high prices. The overproduction of hogs in 1923 and 1924, and finally the short corn

crop of 1924, made the cattle situation worse. But these conditions have been outlived, the demand for cattle is improving, and the industry is on the upgrade. The sheep industry is very prosperous, with lambs and wool both bringing remunerative prices. The lambing season this year has been very successful. Range conditions are good.

Dairy Products

Dairy products and eggs are much more important to farmers the country over than the wheat crop, and their production, particularly of butter, has been on a profitable basis throughout all the period of agricultural depression. The cow and the hen have been the mainstay of many.

Notwithstanding the stimulus which this might be expected to give to production, the carry-over of butter on May 1, 1925, was less than last year, and below the average of the last five years. Light spring rains are causing production to fall below last year. *Hoard's Dairyman*, one of the best authorities on the subject, says that the dairy-cow population is not keeping up with the human population, and that the consumption of dairy products per capita is increasing.

Few industries are as stable as the dairy industry. The Bureau of Economics, Department of Agriculture, calculates that the price of butter in May was 55 per cent. above the level of the five years, 1909-'14, which is about the same as the all-commodity ratio.

Other Farm Products

The fruit and vegetable crops are a much larger factor in this country's food supply than formerly, for one of the signs of a rising standard of living is a growing taste for variety in the daily menu. These crops, although subject to the vicissitudes of the weather and resulting price fluctuations, are not involved in foreign market conditions, and surpluses are not carried over from year to year. They never escape damage altogether, and frost has played havoc in some places this year, but they are grown in so many localities and produce so prolifically that on the whole the returns realized by growers will not vary much from the ordinary. Tobacco and rice are important crops in certain regions, but it is too early for reports upon yields this season. The market for rice has made

a substantial advance in the past year. Tobacco at no time has been as seriously depressed as the leading farm staples.

The hay crop has suffered from dry weather, and inasmuch as this affects the live-stock and dairy interests, it is perhaps the most unfavorable circumstance affecting the crop this year, not excepting the damage to winter wheat. Just how serious it is will depend very much upon weather conditions throughout the remainder of the growing season.

Summary of the Farming Situation

The general promise of the crops is for moderate yields, a dry and cold spring having retarded growth. The effect of this condition probably will be to establish farm products upon a higher level of values, excepting corn and perhaps wheat, which already are upon a higher level than any of recent years. On general principles abundance is a blessing, but agriculture has been suffering from surpluses which have been carried over from year to year and have loaded down the markets. As the result of reduced yields this situation was corrected last year in the two cereals named, and now seems likely to be corrected as to others. Unless the unfavorable conditions continue to such an extent as to create scarcity, and injure rather than benefit the producers, the general results will not be harmful. Establishment of the normal equilibrium is the important thing.

The improvement in farm purchasing power from last year's crops has been mainly in the regions where wheat and cotton were the dominant interests. The disaster to the corn crop outweighed everything else where corn is the chief factor in the farm economy. In the section from North Dakota to Texas economic conditions have been very much improved. Debts have been paid, credit has been reestablished and all business has revived.

The abrupt curtailment of buying by the farming population was due not alone to the necessity which existed in many instances for the most stringent economy in order to meet obligations, but in part to the psychological effect of the fall of prices. While the debt situation has been much improved, the psychological condition has been improved even more. New courage and ambition has been given to everybody.

The Federal Reserve Bank of Minneapolis reports that sales of farm implements in that district in the first four months of 1925 were 84 per cent. larger than in the corresponding months of last year, and notwithstanding this increase of sales, accounts and notes receivable held by farm implement wholesalers and manufacturers were 2 per cent. smaller on May 1, 1925, than on May 1, 1924. This is an indication of the change wrought by one good crop in a territory where the conditions were at the worst.

The proceeds of the first year of prosperity naturally have gone largely to strengthen the farmers' economic position, by the payment of pressing debts, renewal of equipment, etc.; but a permanent restoration of income to this great class will give increased support to other lines of industry.

Interest rates upon farm mortgages are now back to practically the level of pre-war years. Lands are recovering in value, as shown by increasing sales at improving prices.

It should be considered that in the fifteen years preceding 1914 agriculture enjoyed steady and expanding prosperity, as evidenced by the fact that the average value of all the farming lands in the United States doubled from 1900 to 1910, according to the census reports. That prosperity was interrupted by the war, but there is no substantial reason why it should not be regained when the derangements caused by the war have been overcome.

It must be considered, also, that increasing population is a constant factor in the correction of overdevelopment in agriculture. There are about 15,000,000 more mouths to feed in the United States in 1925 than at the beginning of 1914, not to speak of the increase in other countries.

Activity in Construction

Excepting war times, when great demands are put upon the industries by government expenditures, the difference between what is called good times and bad times is usually due to fluctuations in the amount of construction work under way.

During the war, construction was very active in the industries producing war materials, but curtailed in others. We fell behind in house building and many kinds of construction, but since 1922 have been making up, particularly in new homes. In the first five months of this year, however, building permits issued in all cities have

slightly exceeded in contemplated expenditures those of the corresponding months of last year, which was the greatest year for building on record.

It is evident that building operations will be going strong through this year, and it is probable that whenever there is sufficient slackening to cause a reduction of costs, renewed activity will be stimulated. At any rate, the building trades and building-material industries are well supplied with business for the remainder of this year.

Other kinds of construction are active. Road building is employing a large amount of labor, and will continue to do so indefinitely. Construction for the generation and distribution of electricity is on a great scale, with developments under way which promise that the country will be rapidly covered with a net-work of wires carrying light and power not only to all cities and towns but to hitherto isolated hamlets and farms.

The ultimate effect of this service upon industrial development must be very great, but it is referred to here to indicate that the expenditures being made are an important factor in industrial conditions and will continue to be.

Railroads as Buyers

Over the last seventy-five years the expenditures of the railroads have been one of the leading factors in the fluctuations of the country's volume of business. The years in which railroad construction was largest always have been years of general business expansion. During the war, such expenditures were limited as closely as possible to immediate needs, but in the last three years, however, expenditures for improvements and equipment, especially the latter, have been high, and the prospect is that this will be the case for some time to come.

Railroad expenditures in the future will be less for extensive mileage than for improvements, the enlargement of capacity, and for cheapening operating costs. The Castleton cut-off, about twenty-eight miles long, by which the New York Central now runs its through freight trains around Albany and across the Hudson on a high bridge, avoiding the drawbridge delays at Albany, built at a cost of \$25,000,000, and the example of the Virginian Railway in electrifying 134

miles of its main line, are instances of railway construction now in prospect. The Pennsylvania has seemed to be a fairly well-completed railroad for some years, but the stockholders have recently authorized the issue of \$100,000,000 of additional securities to provide for improvements and development of capacity. However, more than 200 miles of new line were built in Florida last year, more building is about to be done in that State, and numerous cut-offs and branches are under construction in different parts of the country.

There is more confidence in financial circles in the future of railroad investments than there has been in many years, and the principal reason for this is that the railroads seem to be more nearly out of politics than ever before. The bankruptcy of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Company refutes the representation that the Esch-Cummins Act affords a guaranty to railroad investments. The act, however, does protect the roads against unreasonable regulation, and upon this basis capital can be had for railroad development.

Favorable Financial Conditions

The experienced observer is influenced largely in his opinions as to whether business from time to time is likely to be on a rising or declining scale by the state of the "money market," as the credit situation is commonly described. Periods of business expansion have their beginnings when the investment market is favorable to raising new capital and when bank credit also is in abundant supply; and they reach their crises when the investment market is loaded with undigested securities and the banks are expanded to the limit of their lending power.

At the present time the supply of capital in the investment market is large. The country is accumulating capital faster than ever before, and thus the market is in condition to finance new undertakings.

Furthermore, the banking system, backed by the Federal Reserve institutions, is in condition to supply credit as needed for the expansion of current business. Interest rates are low and the banks are desirous of more commercial loans. Many of them are temporarily employing funds in carrying bonds, which they would like to dispose of if they could obtain commercial paper. The banking reserves of the country could carry a much larger volume of credit than is outstanding at the present time. This situation

is favorable to business expansion; indeed the common opinion in the financial circles of Europe is that the real danger America has to guard against is not stagnation or falling prices, but inflation of credit and rising prices. It seems safe to say that we shall not have much of the former without first having some of the latter.

General Industrial Situation

The various branches of industry are interlocked, and to a great extent prosperous or depressed together, although the organization is loose-jointed enough for some to have more independence than others. Some of the groups are more important than others in their influence upon the general situation, and the agricultural group is one of them by reason of numbers.

Every great upward surge of prosperity in our history has had agricultural prosperity behind it. This was notably true of the period which began in 1879 after six years of depression, and of the period which began in 1898 after five years of depression—the two most wonderful periods of industrial development in our history. In both of these instances agriculture had been suffering from apparent overproduction and low prices, but the fortunate coincidence of large crops and good prices, the latter helped by strong European demand, lifted it out of depression, and its increased buying power put new life into the entire business situation.

The construction industries are another group of preëminent importance, because they embody the spirit of enterprise and release new forces which energize the whole organization. Both of these groups are exerting a strong influence in the present situation.

The iron and steel industry always has been regarded as a barometer of industrial conditions, but in considering its present rate of production it should be remembered that its capacity has been greatly increased in the last ten years. The United States is making more iron and steel than all the rest of the world put together, and allowing for imports and exports using fully 95 per cent. of it within its own borders, largely for machinery of production. After operating through the first quarter practically at the limit of capacity, it is now in the dull season, operating at about 70 per cent., and the usual fall expansion is expected to carry it to capacity again.

Automobiles as an Index

The automobile industry has become one of the great industries of the country in the employment of labor, in the value of product and in the volume of business which it distributes to other industries. It is also a highly significant index of the purchasing power of the American people. They are expending \$8,000,000,000 per year for automobiles and in running them, according to a committee of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, which after a careful study of the subject concludes that the automobile plays an indispensable part in the transportation service of the country. The fact that the country is able to spend so much upon the automobile must be accepted as proof that it is an important utility.

It is something remarkable that 82 per cent. of all the automobiles in the world and 65 per cent. of the telephones are in use in this country. Moreover, in both cases the number is increasing very rapidly at the present time.

The automobile industry started the year cautiously, producing upon orders only. But in April, notwithstanding the highest production for any month on record, it fell behind orders and has been behind since.

Manufactured Exports an Evidence

One of the most striking evidences of the growing industrial strength of the United States is afforded by the figures for the exports of manufactures, in competition with the world. As classified by the Government, 43.6 per cent. of our exports in April last, the latest month for which figures are available, consisted of finished manufactures, 15.5 per cent. of semimanufactured material, and 10.2 per cent. of manufactured foodstuffs. The total of these percentages made 69.3 per cent. of all our exports.

A considerable share of these exports consists of goods in which the raw materials are produced here and constitutes an important part of the cost, but the value of other manufactures is constantly growing. In the ten months ended with April, we sold 468,000,000 square yards of cotton cloth against 344,000,000 yards in the corresponding months of the previous year; \$278,000,000 worth of machinery, against \$261,000,000 worth in the earlier period; 350,130 automobiles, trucks and buses,

against 281,506 in the earlier period; \$42,000,000 worth of leather, against \$37,000,000 worth in the earlier period; \$35,500,000 worth of rubber, chiefly automobile tires, against \$28,000,000 in the earlier period; 3,259,785,483 gallons of refined mineral oil, against 2,941,347,382 gallons; 961,833,471 pounds of refined copper (of which, however, 865,000,000 pounds were in ingots and bars) against 806,814,348.

It is noteworthy, as another instance of gains to us from German recovery, that of this export of ingot copper, 198,241,073 pounds went to Germany, against 123,006,952 pounds in the corresponding months of the last fiscal year.

Of the imports of Latin America, we had 16 per cent. in 1913, and 24 per cent. in 1923, the latest year for which figures are available. Of the imports of Canada in that country's fiscal year ended March 31, 1925, the total was \$893,000,000 of which \$601,000,000 was from the United States, against \$153,000,000 from the United Kingdom and \$138,000,000 from all other countries.

The Impulse to Progress

Subject to comments heretofore made, the industries of the country are in good condition and looking confidently to the future. The readjustment of price relations is not altogether completed, the equilibrium is not wholly restored, and certain lines are suffering from overdevelopment. These conditions are apparent and require time for their complete correction, but the natural economic forces are constantly tending to accomplish the necessary readjustments. The effect of industrial development, of course, must be a larger distribution of goods to consumers, either through higher wages or lower prices, and industrial development never was proceeding so rapidly as now, under the stimulus of high-labor costs.

Given sound economic conditions, the country is bound to go forward. The growth of population, the accumulations of wealth seeking investment, the energy and ambition of our people, compel never-ceasing expansion in all lines. In the immediate future the crops are the most important factor not wholly determined; but, assuming that they come through as there is reason to expect, the prospect for prosperous and stable business is the best we have had since the Great War.

STOCKS vs. BONDS

I. THE THEORY THAT COMMON STOCKS ARE SAFE AND MORE PROFITABLE

BY IRVING FISHER

(Professor of Political Economy, Yale University)

FROM time immemorial it has been assumed that bonds afford a safer and better investment than stocks. In accordance with that idea the laws have been framed to limit trustees to investment in bonds or securities similar in nature.

In 1912 I was one of several economists who contributed to a book entitled, "How to Invest When Prices are Rising," in which we contended that this traditional idea is incorrect.

More recently several other writers, notably Mr. Robert W. Pomeroy, especially in his "Stock Investments," and Mr. A. Vere Shaw, of Scudder, Stevens and Clark, have reached the same conclusion.

The latest studies are the very extensive ones of Mr. Edgar L. Smith in his interesting book, "Common Stocks as Long Term Investments," and of Mr. Kenneth Van Strum in a series of magazine articles. These writers have proved, statistically, that bonds are not, as compared with well-selected and diversified stocks, what they have been cracked up to be, that they are especially deceptive during rising prices, and that even when prices are falling they are not usually superior to stocks.

Old ideas die hard. The recent writings of Edgar Smith and Kenneth Van Strum have thrown a bombshell into the investing world. But the attempts to answer their arguments, as far as I have seen any, are comically inadequate. Their arguments are, I believe, unanswerable. They show that during the falling prices following the Civil War stocks and bonds are about equal as to yield, while during the rising prices since 1896 the real yield on stocks is about four times the real yield on bonds.

To understand the stock and bond problem we should go back to first principles.

A bond entitles the owner to interest and return of principal after a period of years.

Thus a 5 per cent. thirty-year bond means that the owner is entitled to \$1,000 in thirty years and, in the meantime, to a fixed and steady income of \$50 a year.

Common stock, on the other hand, entitles the owner to whatever remains after bonds and other fixed obligations have been provided for.

Thus a share of stock in a corporation owned in 10,000 such shares means that the owner is entitled to one ten-thousandth part of the income and capital of that company after its debts are taken care of.

The bondholder has one advantage over the stockholder, that of having his claim attended to first. If there are not enough earnings to go around the stockholder must be the one to go without. Not only must the bondholder's interest be paid first, but, in case of liquidation of the assets, should the company become insolvent, the bondholder must be paid in full before anything can go to the stockholder.

Thus the stockholder takes the risk of the success of the business while the bondholder is practically assured his interest and principal.

Why, then, is it not true, as is almost universally believed, that "gilt-edge" bonds are safer and better?

The Stockholder Has a Chance of Gain

The first answer is that the stockholder not only assumes the risk of a decrease in earnings but, on the other hand, possesses the chance of an increase. Any bond of the Bell Telephone Company or the Ford Motor Company could not share in the prosperity of the company, however rich it becomes. The result is the stockholders grow all the richer. While few companies have such phenomenal success as the Bell Telephone or the Ford Company, and while the name is legion of those companies which

go broke, nevertheless the facts indicate that, on the average and in the long run, with all the risk, the stockholder comes out better because of his chance of gain.

Thus the bondholder pays dearly for his supposed safety and regularity of income. True, the stockholder buys a lottery, but the facts show that the price he pays is below the mathematical chance. The lottery tickets are unduly cheap, just because of the traditional preference for bonds, which are unduly dear.

Steadiness of Income

But this is only the beginning of the story. As a matter of actual fact, in all but "wild-cat" companies, the shareholder's actual cash income does not fluctuate very widely. This is because modern corporation directors pursue a conservative dividend policy. Just because of a common dread of lowered dividends, the modern policy is to declare only such dividends as are pretty sure to be kept up. In other words, the most approved dividend policy is one of steadiness. This is accomplished by trying to put back in the business a certain amount each year, just as thrifty people put something aside in the savings bank. Year after year, for every \$5 that the owner of the share of stock gets, another \$5 or so is put back in the business. One corporation head says that it is an axiom that a growing company must try to put back about half of what it earns. The aims are not to disappoint the stockholder, to make his dividend steady, at least as large as it usually had been, if that is possible, and to invest what is left in the business. In fact, sometimes dividends are declared when the earnings, for the time, are insufficient by drawing on the surplus, thus feeding lean years out of the left-over from fat years.

This brings us to the third point, namely, that the constant reinvestment of earnings rolls up just as does one's savings in the savings bank, but, quite often, far faster. Every cent of this accumulation belongs to the stockholder, not the bondholder, and, except through ill-luck or bad management, these accumulations will not be dissipated but will steadily grow until the company feels it safe to increase the dividends. The stockholder who begins with \$5 a share is apt, if he is patient, ultimately to get much more—sometimes many times as much—in the course of a lifetime. The bondholder has nothing to match this.

Thus the supposed unsteadiness of the stockholder's income is one in name rather than in fact—that is, in a well-managed company.

The Bondholder Loses on Rising Prices

The fourth answer is that when prices are rising, that is when the dollar is depreciating in value, the bondholder loses in the value of his principal and interest. His purchasing power is lessened. His income may be "steady" in terms of *dollars* but it is really very unsteady in *purchasing power*. German bondholders were, of course, ruined by the fall of the mark. A 1000-mark 5 per cent. bond continued to yield fifty marks, but what was the mark? In actual bread and butter, in ability to cope with the cost of living, the mark fell, say, fifty-fold during the war, thus reducing the *real* income of the bondholder to one-fiftieth of what it had been; and, after the war, the bottom fell out altogether.

But, you say, that does not apply to gold bonds in the United States. Most assuredly it does! It applies to bonds expressed in any kind of unstable money. But, you ask, is our gold dollar not stable? Most assuredly not! The dollar to-day buys only two-thirds as much as before the war, and in 1919-'20 it bought only half as much. On the other hand, history shows that back in 1896 the dollar bought *three* times as much as in 1919-'20 and twice as much as to-day. Is that a stable dollar?

So when prices are rising—that is, when the dollar is shrinking—the bondholder complains of a "high cost of living," which is another way of saying that he is losing real income and principal though nominally they remain the same. Moreover, since, during rising prices, the world is getting no poorer (but rather richer) in real goods, what the bondholder loses the stockholder must gain.

Thus we find that the bondholder's "steady income" is a delusion and a snare, so long as we do not stabilize our dollar. Our own war inflation ruined numerous colleges, hospitals, foundations and other institutions as well as widows and orphans through the fall of the dollar, just as the fall of the mark swept away the savings of German bondholders. The difference was merely one of degree. Our bondholders have lost sometimes, through long periods of rising prices, two-thirds of their real value, while the German bondholders lost over 99 per cent. That is the

only difference. Dr. W. I. King, now secretary of the American Statistical Association, estimated that in the last few years 40 billion dollars' worth of value changed owners in this subtle way.

The evil is all the worse because it is not realized. People talk in terms of the "high cost of living" instead of in terms of a depreciated dollar, and never realize that it is at bottom a matter of a changing dollar. Among other tricks played on bonds by unstable money is to play havoc with book-keeping. Income and principal get confused. During rising prices bondholders do not realize that they are eating up much of the real principal when they spend all of the money income.

The net effect of fluctuations in the price level—that is, in the purchasing power of the dollar—is not only to make the bondholder's income really fluctuate but often to *decrease* the fluctuations in real income of the stockholder. We all know that during the war extra dividends were often declared just when most needed, because of the high cost of living; and stockholders grew rich while bondholders could not pay their bills.

Diversification of Stock Investments

There is a fifth answer, much emphasized by Edgar Smith and Kenneth Van Strum. This is that whatever truth there is in the "risk" carried by the stockholder as compared with the bondholder, this risk can be partly neutralized by diversification. If one invests \$10,000 in ten different companies, putting \$1,000 into each, while he does run a real risk of losing all he has invested in some one or two of these companies, this risk is mostly offset by the probability that some other company will prosper exceedingly. Both Smith and

Van Strum show how this diversification does neutralize the risk and corrects the unsteadiness of the stockholder's income.

The bondholder, like the stockholder, may be said to be "gambling." In fact, he is more like the man betting on heads or tails. The dollar will go up or down for all bonds at once, and there is no way to iron out that gamble by diversification. The only way to stabilize income from bonds is to buy stocks as well, these also being diversified. The truth is, there is no way to get the gamble out of life altogether. Neither stocks nor bonds are really "safe" as to purchasing power. On the whole I regard investments in well-selected diversified stocks as less akin to gambling than investments in bonds, chiefly because of the everlasting gamble in our unstable dollar. But even if the balance from the standpoint of steadiness may be, in general, in favor of bonds, that advantage is certainly very slight as compared with the bigger income that one can, on the average, get in stocks.

There are, then, five reasons for the now proved fact that stocks are a better investment than bonds:

(1) The stockholder stands to win as well as to lose.

(2) Modern dividend policy is toward steadiness.

(3) A portion of the stockholder's earnings is reinvested for him and ultimately yields further dividends.

(4) The unstable dollar tricks the bondholder, but any effect on the stockholder is largely neutralized.

(5) Diversification can correct the irregularities of the stockholder's income but not that of the bondholder.

In short, the alleged safety and steadiness of bond incomes are dearly paid for.

II. THE SATISFACTORY INVESTMENT COM- PRISES BOTH STOCKS AND BONDS

BY PAUL TOMLINSON

THERE is a fundamental difference between stocks and bonds; and investors who exchange their money for one or the other of them should do so with full knowledge of what that difference is.

A bondholder is a creditor of the borrowing corporation. His money represents a

loan which must be repaid with interest, which is secured by a pledge of definitely described property; and in case of default, either in interest or principal, he has a legal cause of action to enforce payment.

A stockholder, on the other hand, is a partner in the corporation whose shares he

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owns. He is entitled to no dividends unless earnings remain after the bondholders are paid their interest in full; and his investment is secured only by whatever equity remains after the bonded debt is fully provided for.

The interest on a bond is fixed, and upon maturity the bondholder receives the face value of his investment. The amount of dividends an owner of preferred stock can get is usually fixed also. But, in theory at least, there is no limit to the earnings of common shares, and the price at which they may be sold. For this reason common stock always exercises a strong appeal to the man who wants to get the very most for his money. And man, being human, is customarily full of hope, and he looks for only the happiest of results when he becomes the owner of shares of stock. Too often he forgets that the law of compensation operates in the matter of investments just as powerfully as in other quarters.

The Partner Shares Gains and Losses

The common stockholder is, as we have said, a partner in the enterprise. Being a partner he is entitled to a share in the profits; being a partner he is also obliged to assume his share of the losses. And, unfortunate though it may be, losses do occur in the business world. The question for purchasers of common stocks to ask themselves, is whether the possibility of substantial gain is sufficient compensation for the equal possibility of substantial loss. To put it another way, can they afford to undertake the risks involved for what they may get out of it? The answer depends upon the circumstances and financial condition of the investor.

The wise investor—and the investor with experience is always wise—constantly keeps in mind the fact that one can lose money in securities as well as make money. He knows that if he wants a large income and profits the thing to buy is common stock; if he wants safety of principal and assured income the things to buy are bonds.

A Case in Point

Suppose a corporation has a capital structure of \$20,000,000, consisting of \$6,000,000 of first-mortgage 5 per cent. bonds, \$4,000,000 of 7 per cent. cumulative preferred stock, and \$10,000,000 of common stock. If the corporation earns 9 per cent. on its capital in a given year, that means

\$1,800,000. The first \$300,000 must be used to pay interest on its bonds, and the bonds would be rated excellent investments with interest charges earned five and a half times. Next, \$280,000 would go to pay the dividend on the preferred stock, and there would remain a balance of \$1,220,000 available for dividends on the shares of common. Probably the directors would allocate at least \$420,000 to surplus, and there would, therefore, be \$800,000 or exactly 8 per cent., to be distributed among the common stockholders. Not bad.

Suppose the next year earnings totaled 15 per cent. on the capital. There would still be the \$300,000 of interest to be paid on the bonds, and \$280,000 of dividends on the preferred stock. But this time there would remain \$2,420,000 for the common, and even if the directors wanted to add \$820,000 to surplus they could still pay 16 per cent. on the common stock. Not bad either.

On the other hand, suppose a bad year came along and total earnings amounted to only 1½ per cent. That would be \$300,000, just the amount of the bond interest; and there would be nothing left for either the preferred or common stocks. Very probably the preferred dividend would be paid out of the surplus which had been accumulated, but certainly nothing would be paid on the common. Not so good.

Stockholder's Losses Must Be Taken into Account

The situation is just this: A person who has not enough money to be in a position to take chances with it, had better buy bonds.

There is no answering the argument that a good common stock will make more money for its owner than will a good bond. As Professor Fisher points out in the preceding article, "The stockholder stands to win as well as to lose." The trouble is there are many people who cannot consider the possibility of loss, and therefore must forego the chance of gain.

Take a widow with a small capital, for instance. If her money is invested in high-grade bonds yielding 5 per cent., she can feel pretty certain that her principal is safe; and there is a fixed income being paid to her regularly, on which she can depend, and on which she can budget her yearly expenditures. She may lose money in bonds, but the chances are not so great as in stocks. And while a larger income

would help her materially, she cannot assume the risks involved, and consequently cannot consider common stocks as investments. This may be hard luck for her, but it is nevertheless the case.

For many people the difficulty may be stated much as Professor Fisher states it, but in a somewhat different sequence of words: "The stockholder stands to lose as well as to win."

It has been said that only the rich can be truly economical, the implication being that in the long run the best is the cheapest, and only the rich can afford the best. And it is no doubt true. It is also true that only the rich can afford to take chances with their money which hold out the possibility of further riches. If I have a family to support and my income is derived from a salary barely sufficient for the purpose, I have no right to risk my savings and jeopardize my family's future. What little I may have to invest I must put in the safest place I can find.

Two Aims in Investment: Safety and Yield

This does not mean that common stocks may not be excellent investments. There are many arguments in their favor, and undoubtedly they do give their owners the opportunity to share in the corporation's success, and protect him against the inflation of the dollar. In other words, owning stocks is like being in business for yourself; when business is good you personally reap the benefit.

It does not seem quite reasonable, however, for any investor to put all of his capital into stocks. A banker of our acquaintance until very recently used to boast that he had never bought a share of stock. The fact that he owns stocks now may be an argument that his ideas have changed and that he now considers stocks superior to bonds as investments. We do not think so. It seems to us that his course, or in any event,

a modification of it, is the proper one to pursue.

A man's first savings should be invested with a view to safety, and safety should be a consideration paramount to all others. As his funds for investment increase, he is then in a position to think about greater yield and possible appreciation in market value. If a man owns two 5 per-cent. bonds purchased at 90, the straight yield is $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. If he also buys twenty shares of 7 per-cent. stock at 90, the yield on the stock is 6.66 per cent. and slightly over 6 per cent. on his whole investment. He has bonds which are safe and which return steady and sure interest; he has stock, which, if the corporation is prosperous, may raise its dividend rate and may advance in value and yield a profit for him. He is protected in all directions, his investments are diversified, his average yield is as much as he can reasonably expect, and he stands to win as well as lose.

Therefore, instead of having all stocks or all bonds, the average investor will do well to consider a proper leavening of both. The bonds will probably give him less to worry about than the stocks, and he will have to keep in closer touch with his stock investments, but in return they have in them the possibility of larger return and greater profit.

The purchaser of Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul general-mortgage bonds some years ago, for instance, should be considered a much shrewder investor than the man who bought the common stock. On the other hand, if we had purchased Bell Telephone bonds and our next-door neighbor had put the same amount of money into that corporation's stock, we should have to admit that we were outguessed.

Why should not the man or woman with money to invest become a bondholder and a stockholder too, and hope with all one's heart for the happiest of results?



IS A REAL PEACE EMERGING IN EUROPE?

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. The Allied Note

THE single outstanding event of the past four weeks in Europe has been the tardy serving upon Germany of that Allied note dealing with German failures to comply with the disarmament provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, which had been hanging fire for nearly six months. Brought at last to the light of day, and transmitted to the German Government, this note is disclosed to have something of the manner of the old and familiar communications which mark the progress of Allied dealings with Germany since the Armistice.

At bottom, the Allied communication constitutes as much a political as a military document, and therein lies the real vice. It has been a transparent fact ever since last August that it would be necessary to find a way to delay the Allied evacuation of the Cologne sector, due in the first half of January, until the withdrawal of the French troops from the Ruhr, which had been fixed at London to be completed in the forthcoming August.

The underlying reason for delay in withdrawal from Cologne was that it was impossible for the French to consent to the Allied abandonment of the area behind the Ruhr (through which French and Belgian lines of communication between the homeland and the Ruhr passed) until the last battalion and the last battery had passed the Rhine. This was so obvious that it is a matter of comment that the Allies failed at London to make arrangements with the Germans to avoid a later crisis.

The thing was possible, because the Germans, while terribly anxious to see the evacuation begin—not alone because it would give them Cologne, but also because it would be a final evidence that the fears of permanent Allied occupation were groundless—had no desire to see the British

withdraw only to give way to French garrisons, as the Americans had given way to the French in the Coblenz area. Once the thing was established in principle, once it was agreed that on a certain day the Ruhr and Cologne would both be cleared, adjustments would have been easy, provided that they were carried on amicably.

Unhappily, nothing was done in London; and the date of evacuation as fixed by the Treaty of Versailles arrived. In addition to the practical obstacle of the Ruhr, there developed the far more serious question of the arrangement of French security. France in substance declared that she would not assent to the evacuation of the Cologne area until the matter of her own security was settled. And she found full warrant for her action because evacuation under the Treaty was conditioned upon German disarmament; and violations of that part of the Treaty were capable of easy proof.

The British desired the evacuation without regard to German performance under the Treaty. British sentiment opposed further presence of British troops on German soil. British opinion estimated that the disarmament of Germany had reached its maximum of possibility, and any further efforts would create permanent German resentment while only bringing about temporary and insignificant results. France, on the contrary, saw in the violations the proof of German designs to make a new attack and in the question of the Cologne evacuation perhaps the last opportunity to press the issue of security.

Remember that France had in the Paris Conference demanded the right to occupy the Rhine as a guarantee of French security, and had only abandoned this demand when America and Britain had through their President and Prime Minister accepted a

treaty of guarantee insuring French security. When this treaty failed of American ratification, the French found themselves without the Rhine barrier and without the Anglo-French guarantee.

However impatient the British were of French insistence, however unreasonable and unwise French policy might seem to them, they had really little chance of opposing it. They were, in view of the pledge which had been given France at Paris and later withdrawn, bound to recognize that France had justice on her side in insisting upon security, and in maintaining that the final evacuation of the left bank of the Rhine had always been conditioned upon some form of Allied guarantee of her security.

More than this, the French put the British in a helpless position when they were able to prove, through the testimony of British officers serving on the Military Control Commission, that Germany was evading the disarmament provisions of the Treaty. The British might think what they chose as to the wisdom of the French course; but they could not refuse to act in association with their recent ally, when that ally was able to base its appeal upon the language of the Treaty itself and upon the testimony of British officers.

As usual, however, a difference of opinion as between the Allies paralyzed all action. The adjustment of the question of the Dawes Plan at the London Conference had produced a marked impression in Germany because Luther and Stresemann, who accompanied Marx to London, were not treated as German representatives had been treated at all previous post-war meetings. Germany had been permitted to discuss a settlement, not forced to sign upon a dotted line after a peremptory command.

After London, the atmosphere of Germany was much improved. This circumstance was disclosed in the Reichstag elections which followed and resulted in a material gain for the republican bloc. But all

too soon this favorable atmosphere was chilled by the perception that the Allies were not going to quit Cologne upon the day fixed by the Treaty and that, in addition, Germany was now to have inflicted upon her new and peremptory commands. The result was an enormous reaction and recrudescence of German resentment.

The Germans believed themselves disarmed. They believed that the new Allied demands were unjust, unreasonable, and the cover for new Allied interferences with German independence. They believed that the failure of the Allies to leave Cologne in early January disclosed that French determination to remain always on the Rhine which most Germans believe is instinct in all French policy from Louis XIV to Poincaré. Above all, the Germans said, and I think quite honestly, that this new affair seemed the proof of what they had all along feared: that no matter how much they did in the way of complying with Allied demands, their reward would be to find themselves harassed with new interferences.

Rightly or wrongly, the German concluded that acceptance of the Dawes Plan and performance under it would insure him freedom at last from the interference of his conquerors.

Stabilization of German currency, the sense of restored self-respect incident to the London Conference—these two things combined to give Germany a brief hour of optimism after the long years of doubt and despair. But this brief hour terminated abruptly when it became clear that Cologne would not be evacuated in January and that Germany was again to be subjected to new demands and fresh condemnation. When I was in Berlin in February and March this reaction was in full flower and it was to find expression later in the election of Hindenburg. The tide of Nationalist influence was markedly rising, and the depression both of republicans and the more reasonable men outside of politics who desired peace and settlement was conspicuous.

II. Efforts at Adjustment

The Luther-Stresemann government, however, was faced with the necessity of doing something. It was handicapped by the fact that while the Allied governments refused to evacuate Cologne and alleged the reason to be German violation of the Treaty of Versailles, they refrained from

serving upon Germany any specific indictment, with opportunity to disprove or comply. Germany was thus put in the position of enduring punishment for offenses which were never publicly stated. She could not establish her innocence, she could not prove readiness to amend her fault.

A more stupid, a more costly blundering certainly never took place; and never did Allied incapacity play more completely into the hands of precisely those elements in Germany which were antagonistic to it. In reality—and I speak from personal observation—the method or lack of method the Allies employed served to contribute to disarming not the militarists but the friends of peace and reconciliation. Since the Ruhr was to be occupied until August—and the Germans had accepted this fact at London—the matter of Cologne should have been settled at the same time. Since the failure of Germany to comply completely with the treaty provisions was notorious, the indictment, accompanied with the proof, should have been served upon Germany without regard to other circumstances.

The Germans were utterly right when they protested that they should not be made to suffer because Britain could not make up her mind as to what form of guarantee France should have, or because France would not consent to evacuate the Rhine until she got a substitute for the treaty of insurance which both Britain and America had rejected. Moreover, they were permitted more than a slight excuse for thinking that the whole controversy over disarmament was not in the least sincere and honest, but only a device for covering Franco-British disagreement and prolonging an occupation until this disagreement could be adjusted. In a word, Germany was presented with a grievance—which was a stupidity beyond words.

But, at the same time, the British—working at Berlin—sought to settle the question of security by a new method. Germany was persuaded, through the Chancellor and the Foreign Minister, to approach France directly on the question of a security pact. Underneath all else as an obstacle to settlement lay the French fear and distrust of Germany. Therefore Germany, under British impulsion, suggested that she was ready to accept the frontiers in the West which the war had left her, to give pledges to do this, to consent that Britain should underwrite that state of fact, without seeing in it any hostile purpose so far as Germany was concerned.

The possibility of a real Franco-German adjustment for the first time in more than fifty years was thus disclosed. London, which had been responsible for the gesture,

applauded. France, despite certain reservations and objections, showed an interest and an attention which was impressive. Despite the awkward circumstances attending the continued occupation of Cologne, there was a promise still of adjustment.

But the hopes which were aroused could not be realized. Ebert died and the election of Hindenburg intervened to destroy French confidence. That the election of Hindenburg was in part due to the general resentment of the German people over the prolongation of the occupation of Cologne can hardly be questioned by any one who has been in Germany during the present year. Moreover, there remained the issue over German disarmament which gained in importance in French eyes with the triumph of Hindenburg, while continuing to appear to the Germans no more than a subterfuge and a cover for Anglo-French differences.

Now emerges the Allied note itself. If there was to be a note at all, no one can complain because it would have to be severe in tone. That there have been German violations and evasions is not only certain but, I think, inevitable. The law is the law, and once the Allies undertook to enforce it the British were delivered to the French, because the law was with the French. Of the wisdom of seeking to enforce the law the British might well argue, but once they assented to its invocation, all else followed automatically.

We have, then, arrived at another of the interminable crises of the post-war period. More than that, what may be considered the best chance for a real adjustment has been compromised by the stupidity and folly of Allied statesmen. It is still possible that Germany will again bend to the storm and agree to Allied terms. But it is also just as inevitable that the tide of German resentment and wrath will rise higher, that the spirit of peace will be weakened, that despair and anger will cripple the hands and weaken the efforts of those men who are still seeking to bring about a viable adjustment between Germany and her conquerors.

The fact that the Allied note clearly establishes a purpose to evacuate the Cologne sector if Germany makes good her defaults, is at least one hopeful circumstance. In effect, Germans can see that the freedom of the occupied areas can be achieved by performance. But the fatal danger is that

they may listen to those who will say that just this evacuation and peace were promised by the London arrangement, and that each time Germany bows to the Allied will her compliance only entails new humiliation.

The very tone of the note itself—in-
evitable, as I have said, if there had to be a note—constitutes an affront to German pride, the effect of which is hard to exaggerate. Nothing can shake the conviction of the mass of the German people that their own country is the single state in Europe effectively disarmed. Everything which the Allies have done serves to confirm the impression that the whole proceeding is no more than a subterfuge. As a consequence, the whole policy of adjustment, the whole proposal of guarantee pacts of the Luther-Stresemann Cabinet, is put in jeopardy. The Cabinet may fall, because it seems to the German people lacking in all decent respect for national pride and sentiment, because it yields, though in the last analysis it has no choice but to yield or to invite reprisals which can be exceedingly costly.

If I should believe that French security or European peace could be insured by permanent supervision of Germany, by constant inspection and repeated disciplines, I should sympathize with the present operation. But I do not. In my judgment, based upon my German experiences, the amount of temporary security which may be gained is nothing beside the permanent peril which is created by uniting the whole German people in the conviction that they are to be denied forever liberty and the return of their border provinces occupied by Allied armies—thus arming them in mind for war while taking from them a few more muskets, affixing some of their heavy guns to their carriages, or reducing the number of tin helmets allowed the police.

I believe the latest Allied note to be a supreme blunder, not a revelation of sinister French or British purposes. I believe it is honestly intended to accomplish what cannot be accomplished, and in reality defeats its own object by arousing the fighting spirit in millions of people, which will endure, while only for the moment depriving them of a few weapons which can be replaced in no long time.

The best hope now lies in the possibility that, despite temporary German resentment, the pending negotiations for security pacts will be resumed, and that the Allies will be able to give the German Government adequate evidence that the way to freedom has not been closed. With the adoption of proposed agreements in some form, imposing upon Germany a due regard for European stability, the whole post-war situation may be liquidated.

Meantime it is essential to perceive that we are again in full crisis, that much of the recovery of the past two years has been placed in jeopardy, and that we must now have some relatively prompt solution of present difficulties or an inevitable worsening of conditions for a long time to come. The Allies, acting within their rights, but in my judgment with utter stupidity, have given the Nationalists and the Junkers of Germany an admirable opportunity to exploit the situation to their own profit.

It is just as true that the success of the Nationalists in electing Hindenburg contributed to producing the present situation and giving form to the latest Allied note. But beyond that lies the other fact that the inability of France and Britain to agree in the matter of security, the rejection by the British of the Protocol which Ramsay MacDonald had accepted, were responsible for the failure to meet the issue of the evacuation of Cologne squarely.

III. At the Crossroads

In the present article, coming as it does in the month which sees the eleventh anniversary of the supreme catastrophe of modern times, I had thought to examine a little in detail the larger questions of European adjustment which are pending, above all the various solutions for adjustment, the adoption or rejection of which will unquestionably shape European history for a long period to come.

We are, indeed, in full crisis, and oddly enough the new crisis—which is, in a sense, the most significant since that which preceded the World War—falls almost exactly within corresponding dates. The serving on Germany of the recent Allied note precedes by only a little the date of the Austrian ultimatum to Serbia, while the month of July, which saw the rapidly mounting conflagration in 1914, must certainly see

some decisive developments for future European peace.

It is necessary, too, to recognize that with the present summer we are for the first time arriving at a point where Europe is at last escaping from the immediate shadow of the war. Reconstruction, physical and moral, beyond all else economic, has progressed to a point where the immediate problem of restoring the ruins has been accomplished. Europe is beginning to look beyond the immediate present. Nations are almost insensibly adjusting themselves to a future, rather than concentrating their attention upon the past.

Bearing in mind this fact, it might be worth while in this month to step outside the narrower limits of a monthly review of events and examine with a little detachment the situation which exists in Europe, and the purposes and states of mind of the several peoples, perception of which is essential to understanding coming events. The Europe with which we shall have to deal for a generation at least is taking form; and it is precisely this form which is to be the basis of all our experience in the coming years.

And at the outset of any such examination one must of necessity formally renounce the emotions, the prejudices, and the passions of the war and post-war periods. In so far as is humanly possible, one must seek to view with objectivity and with impartiality the purposes and the desires alike of the nations which were our allies and those which were our enemies in the supreme struggle, because, in the larger sense, the struggle has terminated. The Europe which existed before 1914 has disappeared. The Europe of 1925, despite the survival of very much of the post-war era, is essentially a new Europe, with new factors and new forces, or old forces in new relations.

The Europe which existed before 1914 in a more or less coherent form was a Europe dominated by a Concert of Great Powers, gradually degenerating into two rival combinations, two sets of alliances between which the causes for conflict steadily increased while the balance of strength with equal steadiness turned fatally against one of the two groups. At the Congress of Berlin in 1878, Europe met; the representatives of the great powers discussed, debated, and in the end agreed upon certain decisions; and in one form and another this basis of common action endured down through the

Conference of London, which liquidated the First Balkan War of 1912-'13.

A year later it was no longer possible to revive this Concert. The frantic and earnest efforts of Sir Edward Grey to bring about one more international meeting failed tragically, because the divisions between the several nations and the two groups had passed beyond the point where such accommodation was possible. Mobilization and not conference ushered in the World War. But, roughly speaking, from the great conference which was the Congress of Berlin to and through the far less imposing London Conference of 1913, there was a Concert of Europe; and not a few wars were avoided—or, more exactly, the great war was postponed—by the readiness of great powers to take counsel together.

Now, in looking at the post-war Europe, the most salient contrast is to be discovered in the fact that the struggle itself abolished all semblance of European unity. After the great wars of Louis XIV., France, although beaten, remained a factor in all discussions. After the fall of Napoleon France was still represented in the circle of European powers—ably and powerfully represented.

But following the recent war Russia passed into complete eclipse, Austria-Hungary disappeared as a nation, and Germany, without allies and without power or influence, had no representation in international gatherings save as she was summoned to listen to sentence or to receive commands. Such concert as existed in Europe from the Armistice in 1918, at least until the Conference of London to deal with the Dawes Plan last summer, was no more than some form of survival of the alliance which defeated Germany, with the United States by its own volition abstaining from all participation. Europe was divided into victorious and vanquished nations, and to the vanquished remained neither power nor influence. They were, in reality, comparable to criminals serving out a sentence passed upon them by a court backed by irresistible force.

Such a condition was doubtless inevitable, and we are not concerned here with the discussion of the rights and wrongs of the post-war period, but seeking only to present the picture of the facts. Yet it has been self-evident from the beginning that since Germany as a nation and Germans as a people are indestructible, and next to the

Russians the most numerous race on the Continent, the hour must arrive when Germany would inevitably escape from the conditions imposed as a consequence of defeat and become again a factor, just as in the longer view the same remains true of Russia.

By armies of occupation, by disarmament, by a thousand and one means, Germany might for years be restrained, prevented from pursuing her own ends and serving her own destiny as she saw it. But Europe could no more make this situation permanent than could the conquerors of Napoleon eternally maintain on the French throne the Bourbons whom they brought back to Paris in the baggage of the Allied armies. The limits to the imposition from without of control upon a great people are sure and certain, and it was axiomatic that Germany would ultimately escape after 1918 as France had after 1815.

But, given the certainty of ultimate German escape, with what purposes, with what state of mind, with what leadership would Germany come back? This was, this is, the tragic question for all the nations adjoining Germany which suffered from German invasion in the years of the war. And since this question was susceptible of no satisfying answer, since there could be no real certainty, there developed

and there endures the problem of what guarantees were to be taken against a renascent Germany, whose will for peace or war has remained undiscoverable. Yet it has always been clear that there was a fatal connection between the methods of restraint employed and the spirit in which Germany ultimately would return, that the very measures taken to render her harmless might in the end arouse the spirit of her people to a fury and a determination which would overpass all barriers and lead to a new explosion.

And we have had the inevitable difference of opinion between those nations which, being remote from physical perils, were free to emphasize the moral and expedient aspect and those nations which sat amidst the ruins of a previous invasion and under the shadow of a fresh attack, if Germany did come back in the spirit of revenge and of anger. The nations which were safe argued that only generosity and even-handed justice could insure German peacefulness. The nations which were menaced, with tragic earnestness emphasized the fact that if generosity failed to reconcile the German, then they remained the foreordained victims of his wrath. If the German continued to be what they out of the fulness of their experience conceived him to be, then their fate was written.

IV. The Supreme Problem

Nevertheless, in the last analysis and after many hesitations, the world, the Allies, last summer in the first real meeting of nations since the war, definitely decided that German recovery should not only be permitted but assisted. The United States, which brought the decisive aid to insure German defeat in the war, at this London Conference supplied the equally decisive influence which led to the acceptance of the Dawes Plan. And with the Dawes Plan Germany was saved. This plan was the economic, not the political, charter of German existence; but it was the economic charter which Germany required first.

Less than a year later the change is little short of miraculous. Out of physical misery and political incoherence Germany has emerged a power—not by any means a power in the sense of Germany of 1914; not yet a power in the full sense that France and Britain are powers; still hampered, re-

strained and disarmed, but a power none the less and a power whose future is now unmistakable. Henceforth in Europe it is necessary to reckon with the German; he has come so far on the road to recovery.

Therefore, the problem is set with almost terrifying clarity. In what spirit does Germany come back? What are her purposes, her plans? And, beyond all else, is she prepared to accept or is she resolved to destroy the European system which has been created since the war and during the years of her weakness—created not a little at her expense in territory, created almost wholly at her expense in the matter of influence? To appreciate the situation one must put oneself within a German skin, one must look at the world as the German sees it and in sharpest contrast with that world which existed on this day eleven years ago.

The war gave back Alsace-Lorraine to France, Northern Schleswig to Denmark, and

the two counties of Eupen and Malmédy to Belgium. It set France back upon the Rhine, and the treaties of peace (aside from provisions as to temporary occupation on the middle Rhine) imposed a permanent state of demilitarization in the Rhinelands from Holland to the French frontier. Does the Germany of to-day accept this situation, or will the generation now rising to manhood cherish the hope of restoring the 1914 frontiers in the west as Frenchmen for half a century clung to the hope of regaining Alsace-Lorraine?

But, in reality, this is less than half the question; the western frontier is a relatively minor phase. What really confronts the German is the situation to the east and south. At Paris the makers of peace took from Germany the provinces of which Prussia had despoiled a helpless Poland, provinces in which the population was Polish, but provinces which for a century and a half had been a part of Prussia, and in the case of the Corridor, actually divided Germany into two parts. In place of the old Hapsburg state, too, the Treaty set on the south a new and ambitious Slav state in Czechoslovakia, with a large German minority, and at the same time prohibited the union of the Austrian fragment, inhabited solely by people of the German race, with the mass of Germans in the Reich.

In addition, aside from partitioning the old Hapsburg lands of Austria among Pole, Italian, Yugoslav, Czechoslovak and Rumanian, the Paris treaties similarly resolved Hungary into its component ethnological sections. The result of this division was the creation of three new and relatively considerable states in the Danube area—Rumania, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia—all naturally resolved to maintain their integrity and all quite inevitably drawn together in a common alliance which is the Triple Entente. Forty millions of people in the Danube area, together with nearly thirty millions in the new Poland, entered into new national life, after centuries of subjection to alien rule; and all seventy millions were united in the common necessity to preserve the treaties which were the charter of their existence.

Moreover, quite obviously, these seventy millions found the same basis for common policy with forty millions of Frenchmen, with eight millions of Belgians, who were quite as vitally interested in the preservation of the territorial decisions of

Paris, because upon such preservation depended the integrity of their frontiers and the security of their existence. Italy, moreover, while remaining outside the several combinations, was equally interested in the maintenance of frontiers which had given her the crests of the Alps at the expense of a quarter of a million German-speaking Tyrolese, and had also an obvious reason for opposing the arrival of Germany at Vienna and the double menace incident to such an arrival, threatening her possession of Trieste and her influence in Eastern Europe from Vienna to Constantinople.

The renascent Germany, then, found and finds itself in the presence of a new European system of states, built on the wreck of the combination which centered about it in the old days. It finds this system of states possessing much of territory once German or Prussian and containing considerable German minorities. It finds this system united on the issue of forbidding the union of the German Reich with German Austria, combined to preserve the decisions of the peace conference, and feeling itself menaced by presumptive German purposes, reinforcing individual insecurity by a common alliance.

For the German the simple problem presents itself: Coming back into the circle of European powers, shall he accept the situation as he finds it and adopt policies which, while seeking to serve German greatness and German prosperity, fall within the four corners of existing European political frontiers? Or shall he dedicate all his restored energy to the undermining of the existing situation and to the recovery of his lost provinces and the creation of a different situation which shall enable him once more to play a great if not a dominant rôle in European affairs?

The former course means peace, the latter may mean war and must mean eventual unrest. But the former course also means that Germany must content herself forever within limits which are relatively inconsiderable. Her economic future may still be grandiose, but her political possibilities must be restricted by comparison with the British Empire, with Russia, even with France in view of the vast colonial empire of the Third Republic, by comparison with the United States or some of the larger of the British Dominions.

But it is plain that while Russia expanded her frontiers over the vast Siberian areas

without contact with rival nations until she approached the Pacific and the confines of India, while Britain and America expanded over empty continents and France built her empire in North and West Africa, the road to all future German expansion lies through territories of other nations resolved to fight themselves and sure of allies. So long as France feels insecure on the Rhine she has a common basis of action with Poland, threatened on the lower Vistula, with Czechoslovakia, menaced on the Upper Elbe, and with Rumania and Jugoslavia, whose security disappears the day a German frontier touches that of Hungary. But so long as France stands with these "succession states" Germany has to choose between a new war and a submission which is fatal to all old German aspirations.

And to-day France does stand firm. What she demands of Germany as a condition to the restoration of Germany as a nation, in the widest sense of the word, is that Germany shall accept the Europe which exists, the European system, the frontiers which have established the freedom of the Pole, the Czech, the Southern Slav,

which have restored Alsace-Lorraine to France. The Frenchman says: "This is Europe one and indivisible, resting on one principle; there cannot be peace here and war there, stability in the west and mutability in the east. If one frontier is changeable all are insecure. What is done to Poland to-morrow and Czechoslovakia the day after may be done in the end to me, and if I assent to mutations, I shall have no ally when my day comes."

For the Frenchman the basis of peace is security and the basis of his own security is that of all other nations in similar posture. And this is precisely the situation of the Pole, the Czech, the Rumanian, the Jugoslav, and, for that matter, of the Belgian and the Greek. For all of these nations the single desire is peace. None of them has the smallest design upon the territories of others, but all of them are menaced if it be established in principle and practice that frontiers made at Paris are now subject to revision and that Germany, returning to power and strength, can reserve the right to change them to suit her own will and her own views of justice and self-interest.

V. The League of Nations

In the effort to find some basis for order and security, something which might replace what had been the Concert of Europe before the onrush of the events which precipitated the World War, Europe has been experimenting with the League of Nations. Few Americans have been in the least conversant with the evolution of the League, or with the realities of the European situation which have hampered and so far prevented it from serving any larger purpose.

The League of Nations as President Wilson conceived it was to be an association of nations founded upon equal justice and supported by the bed-rock desire of all peoples for peace. It was Mr. Wilson's belief that a peace founded upon his Fourteen Points would be of such a character that all peoples would accept it with equal readiness, that the acceptance of the Covenant by each nation would be equally complete and voluntary, whether these nations had been in one alliance or the other during the great struggle.

This primary conception broke down before the facts of the European situation.

The several nations represented in the peace conference at Paris had conceptions of their own rights, their own necessities, which proved in practice irreconcilable. The final settlement which was made constituted only a partial recognition of the needs of the Allied and Succession nations as they saw them; but the same settlement struck the conquered nations, and particularly the German and Magyar peoples, as intolerable and to be accepted only as their temporary weakness made acceptance inevitable.

Thus, almost ineluctably, the League became in fact no more than an association of nations satisfied with existing conditions and resolved to maintain peace by guaranteeing this condition. And from the responsibility of such guarantees the United States promptly recoiled. To promise to send our army and our fleet to assist in the defense of Poland against Russia, of Czechoslovakia against Germany, of Rumania against Hungary, this was contrary to our whole tradition. To associate ourselves with the other nations of the world all equally resolved to maintain

peace, that was one thing. To join one group of nations in continuing to impose a challenged arrangement upon another, that was something different.

With our departure the League passed into temporary eclipse, while the real problem was that of perpetuating the alliance which had won the war. What France sought, what all the Succession States and Belgium desired, what every people with a sense of danger craved, was an alliance which should guarantee the preservation of what existed by a force too great to permit of successful challenge. And what the French sought beyond all else was an alliance with Great Britain directed against any future German attack and calculated to keep Germany in the condition and within the limits fixed for her by the treaty.

But from such a contract the British shrank. They, too, had a tradition of isolation. They, too, had no wish to become the permanent partners of any people, and least of all to become the allies of France against Germany, committed to such restraint of Germany as seemed in their eyes to insure a future struggle. Accordingly, all British policy aimed at avoiding the specific alliance and finding in the League some form of association to which Germany would be promptly admitted.

France, on her side, sought, as we have seen, some substitute for the British alliance which was denied, in an arrangement with the Succession States, which had the same fear of ultimate German attack and the same desire to maintain the status quo which the war had created. The result was the creation of that system of alliances centering in France and including Poland, Czechoslovakia, Rumania and Jugoslavia, with Belgium also inevitably linked to France by the common danger.

As these alliances developed, the British saw the danger of a new war between France and Germany grow, saw their own influence sink to nothing, and found themselves unable to accomplish anything at Geneva, where France was steadily supported by her allies. In the end, the British—still refusing a direct guarantee to France, in the form of an alliance—through Ramsay MacDonald joined in the formulation at Geneva last fall of that famous Protocol which was to be the substitute for the system of alliances which had been developed.

But when the Protocol was finished and published, it was disclosed to be no more than the formulation of the principles which had led to the American rejection of the Covenant. In effect it bound all members to defend the integrity of each, and it committed British military and naval resources to the defense of the Polish Corridor and every other decision of the Peace Conference which had no other sanction than that of force, since the losers still refused voluntary acceptance.

And from this responsibility the Baldwin Cabinet—which succeeded that of MacDonald—shrank with exactly the same horror as the American Senate had shrunk from the Covenant. The British Government then formally rejected the Protocol and, as a secret memorandum published recently by the *New York World* showed, confessed its appreciation of the fact that the League of Nations could not perform the service which had been hoped of it. It could not guarantee peace because it had no force of its own. As long as some nations were ready to fight to maintain an existing territorial situation and others were only temporarily restrained from challenging that situation by arms, the League was powerless, save as nations desiring to preserve the status quo lent their force, which transformed the League at once into a League of the Victors of the latest war, who were satisfied with its decisions, against the vanquished, who were permanently dissatisfied.

It remained for the British to find some substitute, some way around the obstacle. And what they have actually proposed is that system of mutual guarantees which has led to the present discussion in Europe. What the British have done is this: They have rejected the notion of the preservation of all things as they are. They have concentrated on preserving the things which interest them, quite legitimately, things for which they would fight. They have said, in effect, to France and Germany that the frontiers created at Paris as between these nations—in fact, the frontiers now existing from Holland to the end of the Italian frontier about Fiume—concern the British people and that they are prepared to guarantee them. And, finally, the British have extended an invitation to France and Germany, together with Italy and Belgium, to join in a five-power pact guaranteeing these frontiers.

To France, thus, the British offer what they believe to be an adequate guarantee of French security—a German promise plus a British guarantee. But upon the German they have at one time served notice of the peril for him of any western aggression and also held out the hope of eastern amelioration. They have warned him against western ambitions and encouraged him in eastern hopes. And the British reasoning is quite clear: It is believed in London that no force can permanently maintain the Polish frontier against Germany peacefully; that, therefore, if France and Britain are to avoid being dragged into the struggle which the English see as inevitable over this eastern boundary, then France must resign her guarantee to Poland.

The Englishman is willing that the German should regain Danzig, the Corridor, Upper Silesia, even annex Austria, provided he will formally and permanently resign his aspirations to come west again, to reconquer Alsace-Lorraine. And he believes that with these concessions the German is ready to accept the western situation. And the German, following the British lead, has offered to agree to such conditions.

But obviously such a solution carries a death blow to the League of Nations, for it substitutes a Concert of Europe, made up of three great powers—with the adhesion of Italy it would be four—the basis of which is the invasion of the integrity of small powers, notably Poland and Czechoslovakia. No such revision of frontiers in the East as is suggested is conceivable under the League, which by the Covenant pledges all members to support any member nation exposed to precisely such an aggression as a German seizure of the Corridor would constitute. Only if Poland were willing to permit such a change could the League function, and this possibility may be dismissed as unthinkable.

There are here, then, disclosed the three separate solutions of the European situation which are pending and the facts in the crisis to which we have now come. At the moment when it becomes unmistakable that Germany is recovering her full strength, all turns on the conditions under which she is to be readmitted to the circle of nations. France demands of Germany full and voluntary pledges to accept the Europe which exists, to accept the frontiers which surround her on all sides, to recognize the integrity of Poland and of Czechoslovakia as

well as of France and of Belgium. And in this demand France is naturally supported by all nations directly affected, including Poland, Czechoslovakia, Rumania and Yugoslavia, with Italy formally declaring against German annexation of Austria.

Britain, by contrast, asks of Germany renunciation of all western aspirations to disturb the status quo, believing, I think correctly, that more cannot be had of Germany and that so much can be assured. Germany, on her part, despite certain Nationalistic fulminations, proposes the formula which the British suggest. If France accepts it, then two things are self-evident: first, that a *modus vivendi* may be arranged between Germany and France, and for an indefinite period at least peace will be insured in the west of Europe and between the great powers; but, secondly and just as certainly, every frontier in the east and south of Europe is placed in jeopardy and every small Succession State from Poland to Greece must feel itself threatened in its integrity and its independence.

Moreover, at bottom the difference between the French and British policy rests in the British view that Germany cannot be everywhere restrained and therefore must be deflected, while France believes that if Germany is not everywhere restrained she cannot permanently be deflected, and having acquired overwhelming strength by Eastern annexations will return to the West in irresistible force.

If France, in this state of mind, rejects the German proposal and the British argument, then it is clear that we shall have a period of troubled peace; for Germany cannot for years to come challenge France, Poland, and Czechoslovakia combined, even if Britain could permit such a war to break without taking sides—and she would have everything to fear from a German victory. In that period these smaller states may acquire such power and stability as to make the German challenge unlikely. But it is just as sure that during that time we shall have no real peace based upon German acceptance, and the antagonism between France and Germany will rather increase than diminish.

To-day Britain stands for the substitution of a concert of the great powers in Europe for the League of Nations, which has not been able to fulfil its mission. France, backed by many smaller states, advocates the strengthening of the League to enable

it to function. Germany is prepared, for the price named, to accept the British scheme and join the concert of Great Powers, guaranteeing to abstain from all attack upon their frontiers. But the League of Nations which France supports, the

League of Nations of the Protocol, is, in the last analysis, no more than an association of Satisfied Nations to guarantee a status quo created by the last war against any future challenge by the vanquished of that war.

VI. The British Solution

The difficulty for Americans in estimating the European situation grows out of a lack of general information and an absence of immediate national concern. In the abstract, we are not interested in European frontiers. The possession of Bromberg by the Poles or by the Germans means nothing tangible to us; and the same is true of Rumanian title to Bessarabia, or Serbian occupation of Macedonia. We think of peace in the abstract and ignore the concrete facts which constitute the true obstacles to peace. We confuse the insistence of nations upon legitimate rights, security and integrity, with sentiments which we describe as imperialistic and militaristic.

We are, too, the victims of our own sympathies and of the propaganda by which each nation advocates its own rights. We explain the causes of European unrest not by their relation to the collision of fundamental and legitimate rights of various races, but by ascribing to various peoples evil designs, evil purposes, and evil conceptions. And the emotions and passions of a recent war serve to make easy such judgments. What is almost impossible for us to see is that the real trouble in Europe grows out of the fact that history and geography have combined to create a mixture of tribes and conflict of interests, of the most vital of all interests.

No American, for example, if he were a German, would for a moment consent to accept as permanent the loss of Danzig and the creation of the Corridor separating his country into two parts, or regard his purpose to change this as other than right. But no American, were he a Pole, would agree to cede again territory once his, taken from him by the most shameful of spoiliations, restored to him by the recent peace treaty, and inhabited by a Slav majority. Nor would he regard his desire to retain what had been his and was his, as immoral, chauvinistic, or evil.

We are still influenced by the Wilsonian conception that there is a right solution

for each problem, a solution that the right-thinking men and women of all countries will accept. But the truth is that no such golden mean exists, and the right-thinking people of Germany and the right-thinking people of Poland, on either side of the frontier, hold with passionate unanimity conflicting solutions. We see people armed and arming to maintain what is theirs but is threatened, and we see the act of arming as a threat to world peace and a proof of militaristic ideas. We believe that Europe has a different feeling as to war and peace from that which we have, a liking for strife, and not that Europe has conditions so unlike ours as to make our methods impossible.

Thus, to-day, when the question of guaranty pacts is posed and Germany offers France guaranties for the integrity of her territory, we see in French hesitation the proof of French wickedness, or quite as easily we see evidence of new German designs to resume the pathway of aggression. That is to say, we take a German or a French view. What we do not see is that two great people are moving on pathways which for them are well-nigh inescapable, pathways dictated by decent concern for their own interests, but pathways which lead to collision. For us there is always a right solution and a wicked nation or government refusing to accept it.

The British, with a measure of detachment, stand between the American and the Continental states of mind; they put the water of expediency into the wine of idealism. Their greatest racial gift, that of compromise, leads them to endeavor to separate the irreconcilable from what may be reconciled. They see that the chief danger to European peace, in the broader sense, is the peril of Franco-German differences. They perceive that France blocks Germany in the East because she feels insecure in the West. They believe that if Germany can have freedom in the East she will agree to recognize French security in the West.

And they realize that the only possibility of British security is Franco-German peace.

As for the German, he sits amidst the ruins of a great structure, with the task of reconstruction before him. He feels himself strong with the strength of sixty-odd millions, but he sees that for a very long time at least his strength will be insufficient to restore all of his old structure. He sees his western pathway blocked by British as well as French power, but he sees in the East and the South the possibility of growth. He sees the chance of restoring his eastern frontiers, if the opposition of France is removed. He sees in an extension of his boundaries, to include Austria, compensation for the loss of Alsace-Lorraine. His dream of coming westward, of absorbing Holland and Belgium, of annexing Northern France, has gone to dust. The British shadow over the Low Countries has been as fatal to his hopes as it was to those of France in other centuries. But if the road along the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt is blocked, that along the Elbe, the Danube, and the Vistula would open, if only France were forced or persuaded to withdraw her guarantee of the status quo of the frontiers of Poland and Czechoslovakia.

Thus, in rejecting the Protocol and encouraging German proposals of a guarantee pact to France and Belgium, Britain has in fact reopened the question of all other frontiers in Europe, east of the Alps and the Rhine. British statesmen have formally discarded the conception of Mr. Wilson of universal peace and general association of nations mutually pledged to defend one another against any attack, and adopted the limited thesis of an association of western nations to assure western peace. They have in turn rejected the notion of the universal association, which was to be the League, and the idea of exclusive alliance with France. They have counted on a restoration of the Concert of Europe, the association of Britain, France, Italy, and Germany, frankly seeking to avoid the tragedy of another World War, of a new collision of great powers, of the formation of another system of rival alliances. This even if the cost is paid in sacrifice by smaller nations, by Poland, Czechoslovakia, Rumania, and Jugoslavia.

To-day, strangely enough, France stands as the champion of the Wilsonian conception of the League of Nations evolved into a United States of Europe, to which all

nations would belong, entering with the pledge to recognize existing frontiers as permanent and pledged to unite all their resources in restraining any country which in violation of its pledges attacks a member nation. This is the Protocol, and this is the solution advocated by France, Poland, the Little Entente, and Greece. It is the conception of peace based upon the acceptance of things as they are, the abandonment of all aspiration to remake frontiers and to change conditions.

But to-day Britain offers an alternative proposal. It is the association of the Great Powers—France, Italy, Britain, and Germany—with Russia eventually admitted, based upon the idea of a mutual recognition of the basic interests of these great powers and a mutual abstention from interference with the aspirations of one great power which do not directly conflict with the interests of another great power. Concretely, it means that Germany shall not cherish or further any ambition to regain Alsace-Lorraine, annex Belgium or Holland, disturb Italian frontiers as now established; while France, Italy, and Britain shall not undertake to prevent Germany from restoring her eastern frontier or annexing Austria.

In fairness to the British, I think one must add that the hope expressed in England is that one may pass from the specific to the general, that from the Concert may develop the League. What the British reason is that if their proposal is adopted one can count on thirty years of peace in Europe, so far as the great powers are concerned with each other. In that time all sorts of things may arrive, including the League. But the present alternative is continued unrest, mounting Franco-German hostility, the gradual formation of rival alliances and an ultimate explosion into general war.

The British would now accept German guarantees of western frontiers as sincere and valid, withdraw armies of occupation, receive Germany as a great power without regard to the war, assent to eventual modifications of German frontiers favorable to the Germans, where these chances did not imperil British, French, or Italian interests. They believe that thus released Germany would develop into a pacific and contented member of the family of nations, and they also believe that in no other way can the world escape the ultimate danger of a

dissatisfied and vengeful Germany, certain to be powerful and therefore destined to be dangerous.

France rejects the conclusions, continues to believe that the German will remain malign, that the German pledges will be empty, that when Poland and Czechoslovakia have been mutilated and Austria annexed, the German will come west again. Therefore she clings to the solution which would keep Poland and Czechoslovakia intact and strong, preserve Austria free, and impose by the collective force of Europe ultimate acceptance of things as they are upon the Germans.

But I wish I might be able to make clear to my readers that neither solution arises

out of the innate wickedness or goodness of the two nations proposing them; rather each is the honest expression of the convictions of a people face to face with a terrible and perhaps desperate situation, for the economic recovery of Britain is still to be attained and would be unattainable were there a new war or even a continuation of unrest, while France could hardly survive another invasion and a new bleeding like that of the World War. Moreover, deeply as I sympathize with Poland and completely just as I believe the Corridor solution, I cannot conceive myself as a German accepting it or seeing in a French guarantee of it anything but a resolution permanently to cripple my country.

VII. A Four-Power Agreement in the West

As I close this article, in the middle of June, there comes the announcement from Geneva of the Anglo-French agreement upon a four-power pact to guarantee the status quo in the West. It is expressly announced that Germany shall—with France, Belgium, and Britain—be a party to this agreement, and that it shall take its place among the regional agreements registered with the League of Nations.

Perhaps the simplest thing to say of the present proposal is that it seems to combine the two problems of British diplomacy: it guarantees French security without giving France an exclusive alliance against Germany, and it serves as a warning to any later German thought of aggression while carrying no direct threat to Germany, since in terms it guarantees not the French or Belgian frontiers but the status quo.

The omission of Italy serves in part to cover the failure to deal with the question of Germany's eastern frontiers. But if one may judge from the first reports there is nothing to suggest French abandonment of her Slav allies. Britain, being interested solely in western frontiers, or believing herself to be interested in them alone, has engineered the consideration of the sort of pact she is ready to sign. But the other frontiers, which interest France and her allies but not Great Britain, are not affected one way or the other.

The compromise, for it is manifestly a compromise, will satisfy neither the Germans nor the French. It does not give Germany even a quasi-warrant for seeking

a change in the east, and it fails specifically to cover the frontiers interesting to the allies of France. But, looking beyond the mere form, it is a real guarantee for France; and it at last gives the French Government something tangible to point to as a justification of the evacuation of the Cologne area in the near future.

The first press comment suggests that the proposal marks the complete change in British policy from traditional isolation to unmistakable intermixture with Europe. But the fact is that the developments of modern war, and particularly of the submarine and the airplane have destroyed British isolation and have forced Britain to find strategic frontiers in Europe. Not the Channel but the Rhine has become the frontier of Britain in a military sense. After all, however, there is a good deal of humbug about this notion of splendid isolation, because from Cromwell to George V there have been few rulers of the United Kingdom who have not seen British troops fighting on the mainland of Europe.

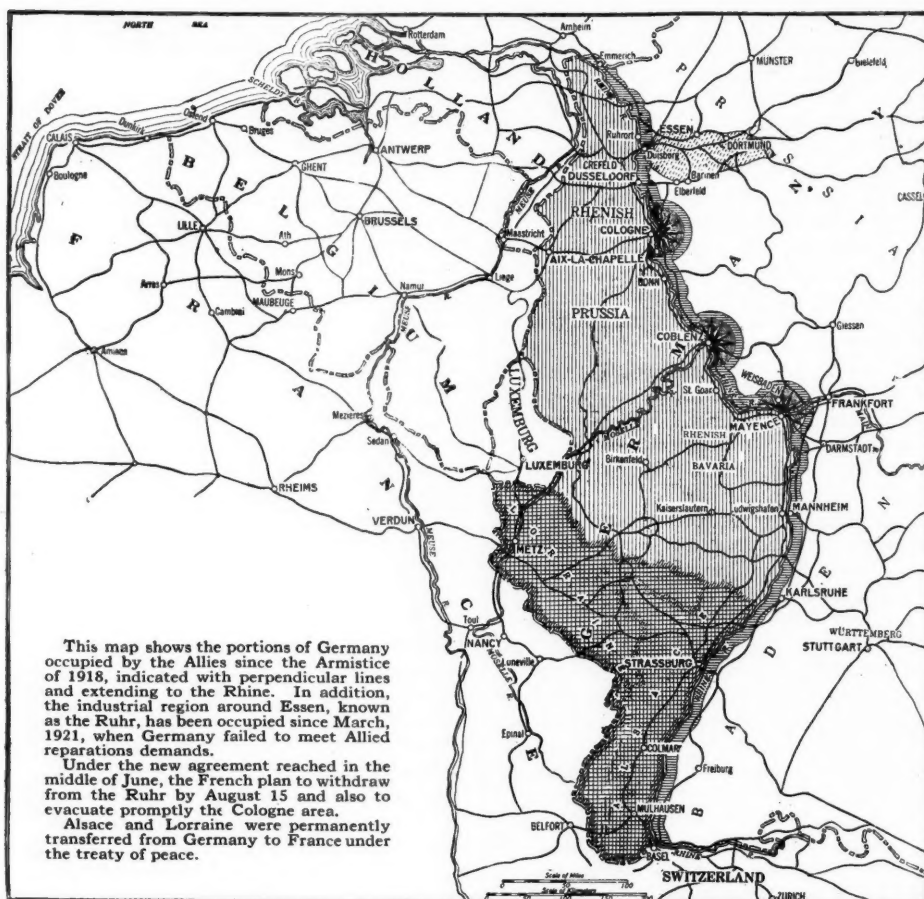
The new agreement, if it be adopted, has an enormous importance. It supplies a corner stone for the construction of a real state of peace in Europe based upon the existing frontiers. It represents personal triumph for Austen Chamberlain, who has all along and against Cabinet opposition insisted that France must have a guarantee. It also represents a real success for M. Briand, who had a similar but by no means identical arrangement ready when Poincaré and Millerand upset the Lloyd George-

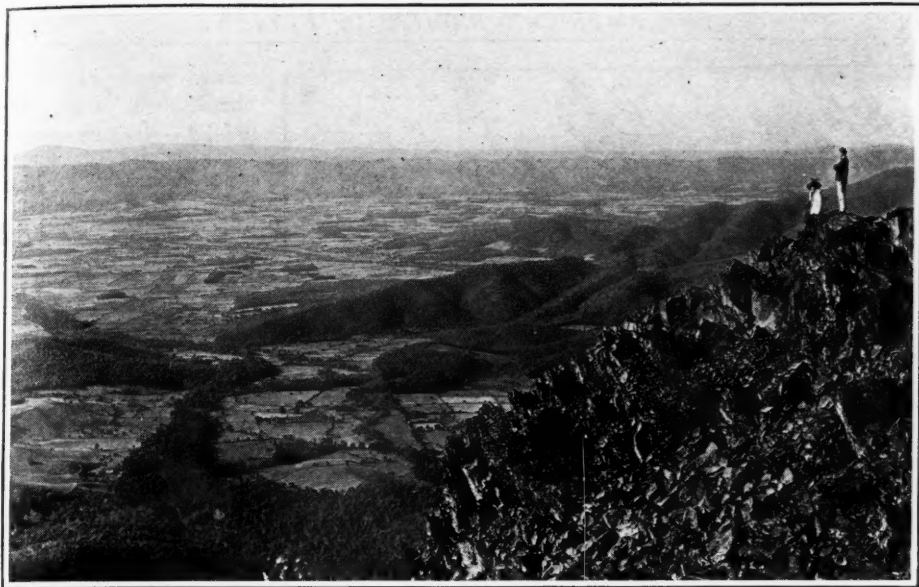
Briand conference at Cannes in 1922 and forced the resignation of Briand while the conference was still in session.

France and Britain in conference have now reached an agreement on the basis of which negotiations can take place with Germany with respect of Germany's proposal for a western pact. We are now to have interesting proof of the present state of mind within Germany and of the ability of the Luther-Stresemann cabinet to carry out what they have proposed. Beyond much doubt the fact that Germany is to be admitted to the League and assigned a permanent place on the Council will a little gild the pill. But what is of more practical value will be the certain assurance which Berlin will now have that formal compliance with the last disarmament note and ac-

ceptance of the proposed security pact will insure the evacuation of the Ruhr and the Cologne zone without delay. In reality, September should see the admission of Germany at the annual session of the Assembly of the League, the termination of the Allied occupation of the Cologne zone and complete possession by Germany of the Ruhr, which French troops are to clear by August 15.

The acceptance of the present pact, being assumed, the way is not only open but emphasized for further negotiations covering other frontiers, those of Italy, Poland and Czechoslovakia in particular. And Italy is bound to seek an arrangement with Germany which shall insure the permanence of the Austrian state; whether she can get it is another thing.





THE SHENANDOAH VALLEY AS SEEN FROM STONY MAN MOUNTAIN, IN THE BLUE RIDGE
(The valley lies 3500 feet below this mountain viewpoint, which is one of three-score lofty peaks within the area of the proposed Shenandoah National Park)

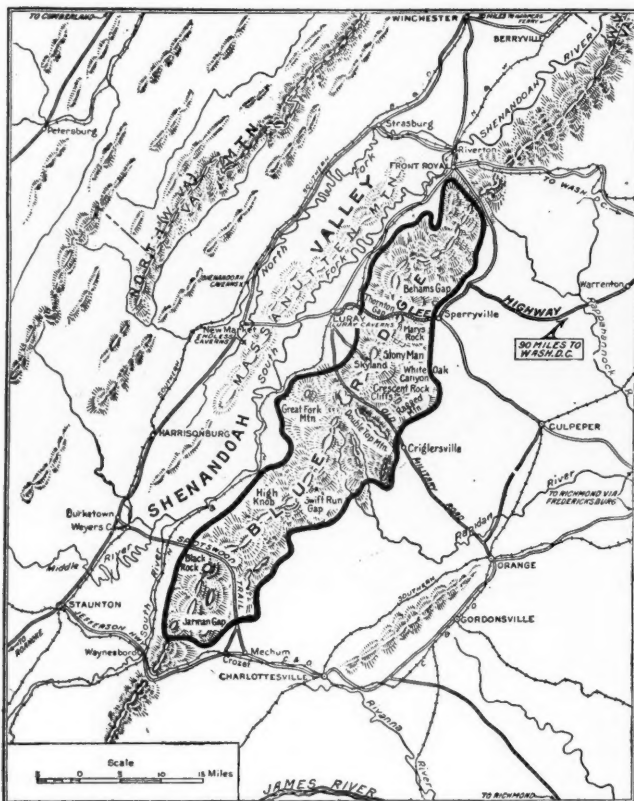
THE SHENANDOAH NATIONAL PARK IN VIRGINIA

BY PLUMMER F. JONES

WHEN the Southern Appalachian Park Committee reported to Secretary Work that the Blue Ridge Mountains of northern Virginia were "the outstanding and logical place for the creation of the first national park in the southern Appalachians" they explained the reasons for their conclusions, which were unanimous, in language which was unmistakably enthusiastic. Not only was the proposed park area one naturally desirable, with untouched mountain areas almost perfectly adapted to the preservation of animal and vegetable life and the education and recreation of the masses, but the location of the region appears to have seized vigorously upon the imagination of the committee. Here, apparently overlooked, was a vast mass of mountain land, a veritable wilderness, picturesque, primitive, and savoring of pioneer days, surrounded on every side by a countryside of surpassing loveliness—a land of apple blossoms and of clover meadows—and all within actual sight of the

landmarks of the National Capital, in a State preëminent for its historic landmarks, and within easy reach of the teeming millions of the East.

Said Chairman Henry Temple and his committee associates: "It will surprise the American people to learn that a national park site with fine scenic and recreational qualities can be found within a three-hour ride of our National Capital, and within a day's ride of forty million of our inhabitants. It has many canyons and gorges with beautiful cascading streams. It has some splendid primeval forests, and the opportunity is there to develop an animal refuge of national importance. Along with the whole Southern Appalachians, this area is full of historic interest; the mountains looking down on valleys with their many battlefields of Revolutionary and Civil War periods, and the birthplaces of many of the Presidents of the United States. Within easy reach are the caverns of the Shenandoah Valley.



MAP OF PROPOSED SHENANDOAH NATIONAL PARK, VIRGINIA,
AND ITS ENVIRONS

"The greatest single feature, however, is the possible skyline drive along the mountain top following a continuous ridge and looking down westerly on the Shenandoah Valley from 2,500 to 3,500 feet below, and also commanding a view of the Piedmont Plain stretching easterly to the Washington Monument, which landmark or our National Capitol may be seen on a clear day. Few scenic drives in the world could surpass it."

The proposed Shenandoah National Park consists of six hundred square miles of territory—an irregular strip of virgin forest sixty-six miles in length and from eight to eighteen miles wide—stretched along the summit of the Blue Ridge Mountains from Front Royal, a beautiful town, twenty miles south of historic Winchester, to Jarman's Gap, near the Valley town of Waynesboro, which is thirty miles west of Charlottesville, seat of the University of Virginia and Jefferson's Monticello, and fifteen miles east of Staunton, the well-

known metropolis of the Shenandoah Valley. Geographically, the area is southwest of the line of cities including Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, being scarcely seventy-five miles from Washington and less than three hundred from the metropolis of the Nation. Its northern limit is little over a hundred miles southeast of Pittsburgh.

West of the park area and adjoining it for its full length is the famous Shenandoah Valley with its fertile farms, its many natural caverns, and its extensive apple orchards; on the east is the Virginia Piedmont, a rolling country of farm and meadowlands, stretching away to the plains of tide-water. Fine highways already connect the area with Washington, Richmond, Staunton, Charlottesville, Winchester, and other nearby cities where further connection may be made with



THE SHENANDOAH PARK IN ITS RELATION
TO EASTERN STATES



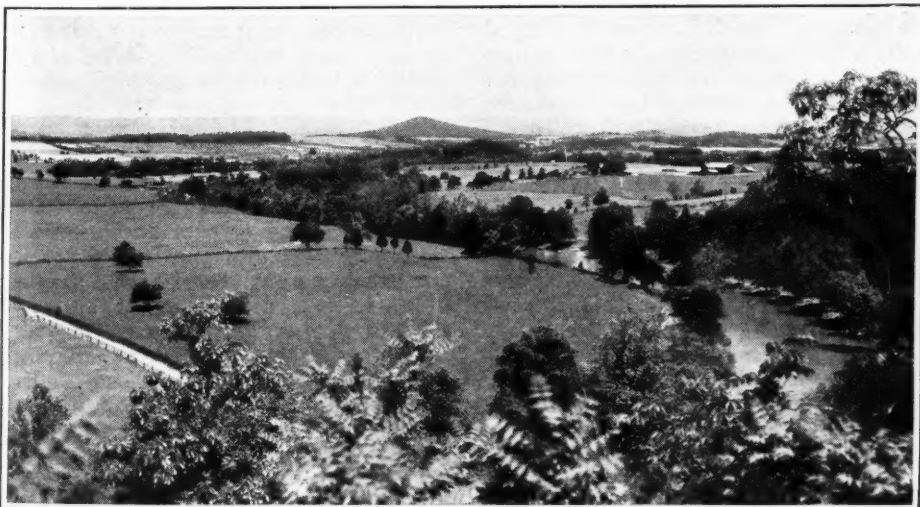
SKYLAND, A TOURIST RESORT AT ONE OF THE HIGHEST POINTS IN THE PARK AREA, OVER-LOOKING A VALLEY 3500 FEET BELOW

hard-surface roadways leading to every part of the country.

Altitude of the Region

Seen in silhouette from the Valley or from the east the Blue Ridge Mountains present a massive and majestic appearance. The average height of the peaks is four thousand feet; and it must be remembered that these mountains rise from valleys hardly a thousand feet above sea level, and

the effect produced upon the observer is equally as imposing as that produced by the sight of the Rockies and other western mountains which rise to a height of ten or twelve thousand feet from valleys which are nine thousand feet above the sea. Some of the peaks of this region are as high above the Shenandoah Valley as El Capitan is above Yosemite. The chief difference is that, owing to height above sea level, the western mountains are rocky and bare while



A TYPICAL LANDSCAPE IN THE SHENANDOAH VALLEY, VISIBLE FROM THE BLUE RIDGE AREA OF THE PROPOSED NATIONAL PARK

(This scene is north of Staunton, Virginia, birthplace of Woodrow Wilson)



A MOUNTAINEER'S CABIN IN THE BLUE RIDGE

(In the interior of this region one finds many remains of primitive pioneer life. There are still those, in sight of the rich and lovely Shenandoah Valley, who make their living shooting squirrels or gathering chestnuts and ginseng)

the Blue Ridge, except the scarps and cliffs, are covered with a wild virgin forest which imparts a thrill to all who are interested in Nature's gorgeous colorings.

Peaks and Precipices

There are about sixty peaks in the area of the proposed park, many of them well above four thousand feet in height. From the summit of Stony Man, a peak near Skyland, where a camp of the typical western type has been operated for many years, one gains a view which many have considered one of the most imposing in America. A vast panorama of rugged mountains and garden-like valleys stretch out in all directions. In the western distance, across the Valley, repose the massive Alleghanies of West Virginia; across the Potomac are the blue hills of Maryland; eastward old historic Virginia; everywhere near by a gorgeously beautiful mountain wilderness of cliffs and plateaus, gorges and dense forests, as wild to-day as when the Indians pitched their teepees here a thousand years ago.

Farther southward are other mighty cliffs and rocks, a number of them rising two or three thousand feet perpendicularly from the Shenandoah Valley, presenting from below an unspeakably majestic appearance, and giving from above views of true grandeur. Great Fork Mountain, which is

about midway of the area, is observable from others of the peaks, and from its various slopes may be had views of almost infinite variety—overwhelming masses of solid rock, deep, dark glens, gleaming waterfalls, and picturesque distant trails.

As one goes south the mountains become more rugged and precipitous. The Double Top Mountain stands north of the two great gorges through which flow eastwardly, with innumerable cascades and waterfalls, the two branches of the historic Rapidan River, which has its origin here. These streams are counterparts of many others which flow in the park

area. There are several hundred waterfalls, many of them uniquely beautiful; and it is estimated that there are not less than a thousand miles of trout streams within the territory.

South of Swift Run Gap, through which passes a paved highway, is High Knob, a famous observation point in Civil War times; and twenty miles still farther south is Black Rock, a great peak which commands a view of Staunton, Waynesboro, and other Valley towns.

The Forests

Visitors are impressed with the rich beauty of the forests of the Blue Ridge. Everywhere, except on the more gentle lower slopes, the original forests remain. There are heavy groves of hemlock, many of the trees being of great size and possessing dense foliage. In the higher altitudes, along the sloping sides of the peaks, are vast acreages of spruce, so thickly grown that smaller vegetation is completely choked out. The floors of these forests are covered with the needles of the pines like a carpet.

All the oaks grow here—black, white, red, Spanish, pin, turkey, post, and chestnut—and in the gorges, on the plateaus, along the slopes, and on the cliff-sides grow the sycamore, poplar, hickory, cedar, yellow pine, birch, beech, gum, ash, and white

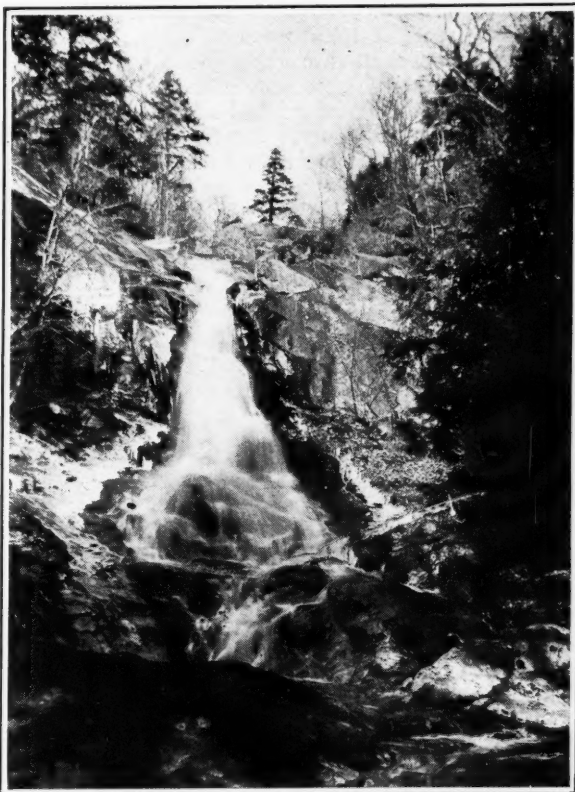
pine. Here also grow the locusts, black and yellow, the wild cherry, the mulberry, the chestnut, and the black walnut. There are vast thickets of dogwood, extensive areas of rhododendron, and innumerable cliffs of laurel.

Practically every wild flower of the East grows here in these wildernesses. In the glades, on the thinly-covered rocks, on the extensive plateaus—everywhere, one finds a profusion of wild plants. From early spring—even as early as late February, when the trailing arbutus perfumes the cliffs, to late November, when the heavy frosts cut down the golden rod and the daisy—blossoms may be seen everywhere, of every form and size and color. It is a paradise for the lover of wild plants.

Wild Animal Life

This portion of the Blue Ridge, like many other sections of Virginia, has a rich fauna. While the wild deer has disappeared, all the smaller animals remain. Here the fox, red and gray, is at home. In this his native habitat the gray squirrel flourishes on the acorns and hickory nuts of the unmolested forests; and the red squirrel rears his litter in the hollows of the ancient oaks along the cliffs. The woods rabbit is plentiful; the opossum, the raccoon, the skunk, the mink, the weasel, and the groundhog all bask in the sunlight and hide in the shadows of these remote fastnesses.

Here in the tangles of fallen pines and chestnut trees, amid the dense undergrowth, the wild turkey and the ruffed grouse rear their broods. The bob white's whistle is heard all summer in the blue grass, twenty-five thousand acres of which are in the park area. Great owls of various species nest in the hollow trunks of the trees; hawks, from the miniature prowlers after sparrows and mice to the great wide-soaring enemy of the grouse and the young turkey, build their nests on the gnarled limbs of the pines which grow from the interstices of the rocks. Now and then one



THE UPPER FALLS IN WHITE OAK CANYON

(Above and below these falls the stream is ideal for trout-fishing)

may still hear the scream of the great bald eagle as he soars from his aerie in the cliffs. The great red-headed woodpecker, comparable to the crow in size, so scarce elsewhere, has taken this as his permanent home. Practically every bird indigenous to North America is either a permanent resident or a transient visitor here. The ornithologist could well spend his summers, with notebook and binoculars, in this primitive garden of the wild.

How to Be Acquired

Representative Henry Wilson Temple, of Pennsylvania, chairman of the Southern Appalachian Park Committee, at the last regular session of Congress introduced a bill making an appropriation to pay the expenses of a committee to look into the matter of acquiring the properties included in the proposed park area. The original committee learned that there had been no commercial development of the region, and

that most of the holdings were large, comprising tracts of from 3,000 to 5,000 acres. Here and there throughout the area may be found small mountain farms, owned by descendants of original settlers, but they are of no great value. It is presumed that the entire area could be purchased by the government without delay and at a most reasonable price. The next session of Congress is expected to make the necessary appropriation and place the new committee at work.

After its acquisition the park would be developed, most likely, along the lines of the development of western parks. Roads would be built, particularly the great scenic highway along the summit of the mountains, places of entertainment and camping places would be provided, and recreation grounds and plots laid off. Provision would probably be made to conserve the animal life of the region by the

establishment of game preserves. It is possible that a radio broadcasting station would be established upon one of the high plateaus where programs of an educational and recreational nature would be broadcast.

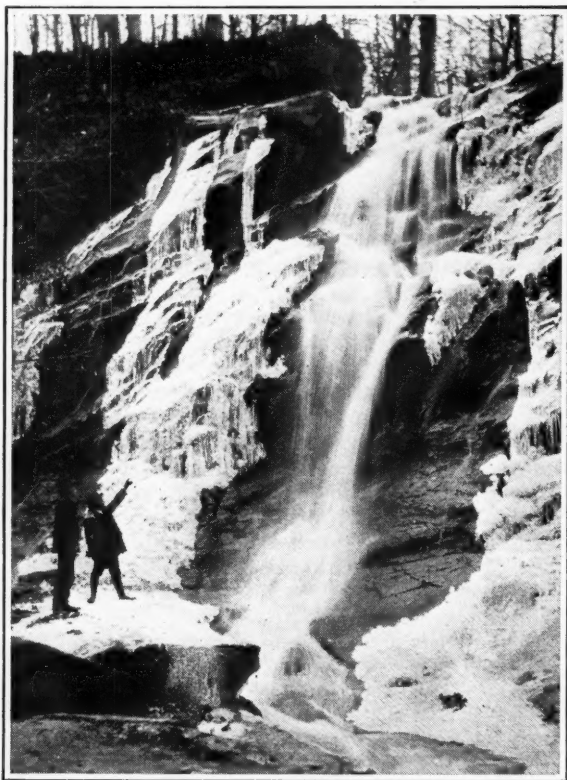
As the average width of the area is nine miles, with a maximum width of twenty miles, there is ample room for every kind of a recreational playground. Some of the high plateaus are from one to three miles wide and from five to ten miles long, affording practically level spaces for buildings, zoological gardens, golf courses, camps, and playgrounds of every conceivable nature. It is quite believable that the park could accommodate a hundred thousand week-end visitors without showing congestion. Possibly a half-million people might at one time occupy the park and not be unduly crowded.

The meaning of Shenandoah, an Indian name, is "Daughter of the Stars." The region, charming as its name implies, has taken hold of the imagination of the people of the United States, and the Valley is becoming one of the most popular places in the East for motorists, who come to visit the caverns and the apple orchards and to journey along the "Valley Pike."

When the park is established it is not unlikely that visitors to this section will increase many fold. Thousands will come out from the congested eastern cities, by train and automobile, to spend a day, or a week, or longer in this healthful retreat.

Red-Blooded American Setting

The district appeals to many because it is the very heart and center of inspiring red-blooded Americanism. No section of the United States has a richer historical setting than this. On every side of the proposed park and literally within sight of its peaks are places whose history thrills the heart of every loyal American citizen. From this valley and the Virginia Piedmont have gone forth men who played a large, perhaps the predominating, part in the making of the American nation. While many will come here to rest with Mother Nature, to visit from



THERE ARE SEVERAL HUNDRED WATERFALLS WITHIN THE SHENANDOAH PARK AREA

(These are the upper falls on the southern branch of Doyle's Run, in Brown's Cove. It is a winter picture, with ice overhanging the rocks)

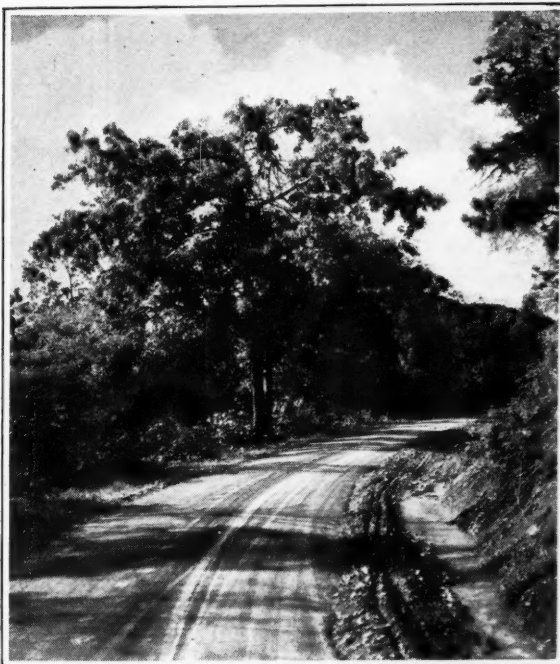
the park the wonderful caverns of the Valley, the Natural Bridge and other inspiring works of Nature, multitudes will come from afar and use their camp in the park as a base to visit the historical shrines of this world-famous region.

Upon these mountains, within the park area itself, is a monument marking the spot where Alexander Spotswood and his little band of "Knights of the Golden Horseshoe," after a journey through the wilds from Williamsburg, looked down into the valley beyond and took steps to conquer an unexplored continent, two hundred years ago.

All around these mountains Stonewall Jackson fought, leading his men against the forces of Fremont, or Shields, or Milroy, or Banks. From these peaks, by night and day, signals were shown, Union or Confederate, which determined the destinies of battles. In sight and lying at their base are the battlefields of Cedar Creek, Cross Keys, Port Republic, New Market, and fifty other engagements. Near by is Winchester, which was taken and retaken seventy-two times by opposing Civil War forces. Here Sheridan made his famous ride. A little to the south lies Woodstock, noted in song and story since Revolutionary days as the home of Peter Muhlenburg, who, after his sermon, took off his surplice and stepped forth as a colonel in regimentals, making an impassioned appeal to the men of his congregation to follow him to the war against the British.

Innumerable Historic Landmarks

Within a few miles is Harper's Ferry, scene of the John Brown raid, and Charles-town, where he was tried. A short distance away is the battlefield of Antietam and not far from this place, Gettysburg. Within sight is Staunton, once capital of the whole Northwest Territory, where stands the house in which Woodrow Wilson was born; and, on the west, near the foot of the mountains is the old homestead on Linville creek, Rockingham county, where, on January 5th, 1778, Thomas, father of the immortal Abraham Lincoln first saw the light of day. Near by is the birthplace of

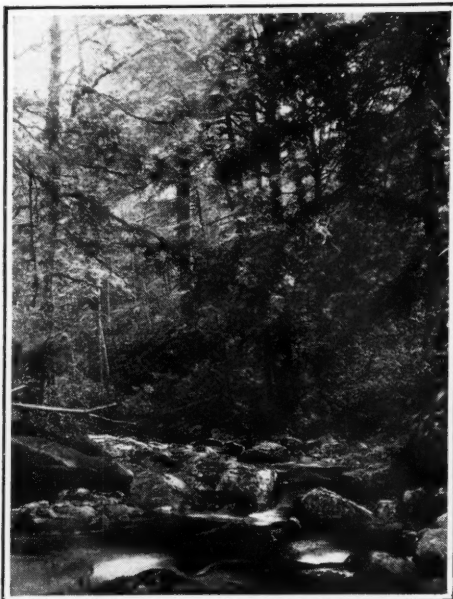


GOOD ROADS LINK THE BLUE RIDGE REGION WITH THE GREAT HIGHWAYS OF THE EAST

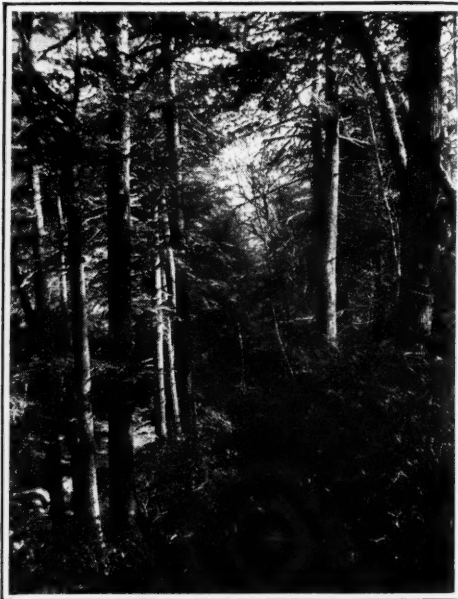
Cyrus McCormick, inventor of the reaper; of Sam Houston, fighter, and first president of Texas; of John Sevier, founder of the State of Tennessee.

East of the park is the old home of George Rogers Clark, "Hannibal of the Northwest," and of Meriwether Lewis, his fellow explorer. At Lexington, site of the Virginia Military Institute and Washington and Lee University, are the tombs of both Stonewall Jackson and Robert E. Lee.

Within a few hours' journey by automobile one may visit more places of historic interest than may be found perhaps in any equal space anywhere on the American continent. East of the park, in easy reach, are a hundred battlefields, from Bull Run and the Wilderness to Cold Harbor and Appomattox. In this section of Virginia are the homes or birthplaces of Washington, the sword, Henry, the tongue, and Jefferson, the pen, of the American Revolution. Here may be found the birthplaces of James Madison, of James Monroe, of John Tyler, of Henry Clay, of John Marshall, of Winfield Scott, of Zachary Taylor, of John Randolph of Roanoke, of Robert E. Lee, and of Matthew Fontaine Maury, "Pathfinder of the Seas." Only a short distance



THE RAPIDAN RIVER, NEAR ITS SOURCE

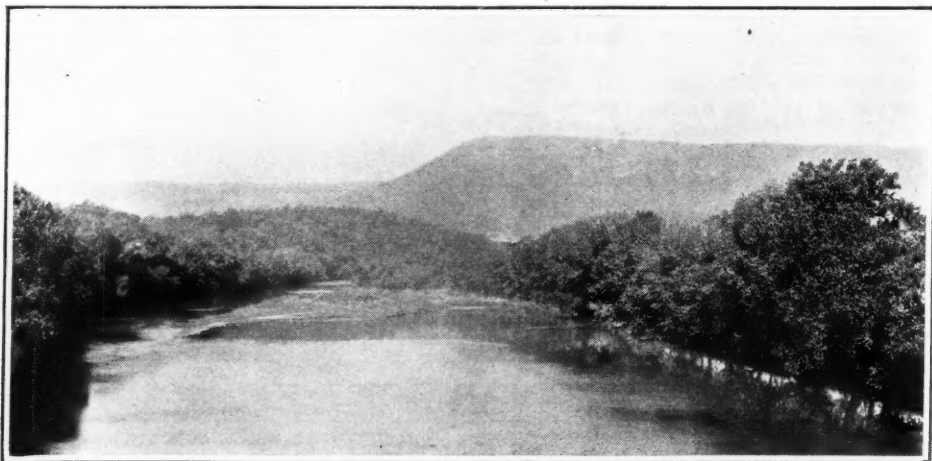


A FOREST OF VIRGIN TIMBER

away, over a paved road already built across the park, is Richmond, with its wealth of historic associations, and Jamestown, "Cradle of the Republic," Williamsburg, the early capital, and Yorktown, where the surrender of Cornwallis took place one hundred and forty-four years ago.

The establishment of the park will open up this vast historical storehouse particularly to the younger and more virile generation of

Americans, and will serve to intensify the true American spirit. That the acquirement and development of the Shenandoah National Park will meet with the approval of millions of city people of the East and the Middle West is hardly a question; that Americans generally will consider this park in the heart of the historical commonwealth of Virginia as an asset of inestimable value is not even open to discussion.



THE SHENANDOAH RIVER, WHICH PARALLELS THE PROPOSED PARK AREA ON THE WEST
(From summits in the Blue Ridge the Shenandoah is seen as a glittering, snake-like ribbon for fifty miles and more)

WHAT KEEPS CHINA TOGETHER?

BY HAROLD BALME

(President, Shantung Christian University, Tsinan, China)

AMONG the many baffling problems which puzzle students of Chinese history, one of the most interesting is the attempt to explain the secret of her continuity as a racial unit. World empires have risen and fallen; nations which appeared well-nigh impregnable have entirely disappeared, or left but little trace of their former prosperity; but China goes on forever. And after forty long centuries, marked by constant strife and internal dissension, she remains to-day the most populous nation in the world. Whence does she derive this mysterious cohesive power? What has prevented her from being eliminated long ere this? Above all, what is keeping her together now, when it would appear, on the surface, that she is rapidly breaking up into a number of mutually antagonistic political divisions?

Many elements in Chinese life have contributed in the past toward her unification. Perhaps the most important of these has lain in the fact that, although a variety of spoken dialects have been in use in different parts of the country, the whole nation has employed the same written language. The northerner and southerner might find it difficult to converse together in the same tongue, but both could communicate by writing, and both have shared in the same literature.

Another contributing factor has been the traditional policy of isolation and pacifism which has always characterized the Chinese people, leading them not merely to avoid all "foreign entanglements"—to use the modern term—but also to refrain from exploitation of weaker neighbors, or to seek any wide expansion of their territory. To this should perhaps be added the strong instinct to clan relationship which has been infused into the race since the days of Confucius; for it can truly be claimed for

the Chinese, if for any race of humanity, that they have learned to "honor their fathers and mothers," and their days have been long upon the land.

Disruptive Tendencies

It is when we come to the study of modern times, however, that the problem of China's cohesiveness becomes all the more remarkable, for new forces, largely of a disruptive character, have entered into the situation. The West, with characteristic insistence, has knocked sharply on the Oriental door, and demanded admission. China, after repeated efforts to maintain her attitude of splendid isolation, has at length, with some reluctance, flung open her portals to every kind of occidental influence.

New political ideas have entered in and created a revolution in her system of government. An intellectual renaissance has rapidly followed, forming a condition of unrest and ferment. The tide of industrialism has swept over the land, threatening the very foundations of her social and economic system. New currents of religious thought and an awakened interest in modern science and sociology have wrought havoc in the minds of the young intellectuals who once worshipped at the shrine of Authority. Meanwhile the provincial satraps—the unchanged offspring of a former autocratic régime—have seized upon the prevailing unrest for the furtherance of their own ill-purposed designs, and have converted the whole nation into a series of armed camps; while the emissaries of other powers, eager for political or commercial influence, have in many instances only added to the general disorder.

And yet China keeps together. It is plain that beneath all this universal disquiet there must be some force at work which

tends to counteract these divisive elements, and to weld the nation into a whole.

Educational Progress

There is such a force in China, and it is that of education. Throughout the whole disappointing period which has elapsed since the ushering in of the Chinese Republic, the one bright spot upon the horizon has been the steady progress which has been made in the educational sphere. On political questions China might be divided into North and South, and each again subdivided into a legion of bitterly hostile parties; but neither political bias nor provincial animosity has succeeded in breaking up the solid phalanx of the educational leaders.

This unity and progress have been all the more remarkable when it is remembered that the disordered state of the country, and the repeated outbreaks of civil war, have plundered the Government coffers to such an extent that the educational budget has been literally drained dry. And yet on all hands there has been steady advance, and it is probably true to say that when the history of this past decade in China comes to be written it will be found that the outstanding achievement of the time has been the resolute and successful attempt, on the part of the leading Chinese educationalists, to remodel and establish a modern and efficient educational system, and lay the foundations of an admirable system of schools and colleges for the future.

Among the notable successes which have already been achieved, the following are worthy of special attention:

In the first place, there has come into existence a National Society for the Advancement of Education, with headquarters in Peking and branches in every province, which includes within its membership all the prominent educational leaders of the country. It was these men who invited Dr. Paul Monroe to visit China in 1921 with a view to advising them on the reorganizing of their high schools; and, arising out of that visit, similar invitations have since been extended to Professors McCall and Twiss, the former of whom has helped to adapt modern intelligence tests to Chinese conditions, while the latter has made an

intensive study of the best methods of establishing science courses in Chinese high schools.

This same society has also brought out a series of valuable monographs on various phases of education in China, including an important set of educational statistics; and its annual conferences, attended by some hundreds of delegates from literally every province of China, are noted for their excellent discussions and addresses. At the last conference more than twenty separate sections were held, dealing with every type of educational activity in most up-to-date fashion.

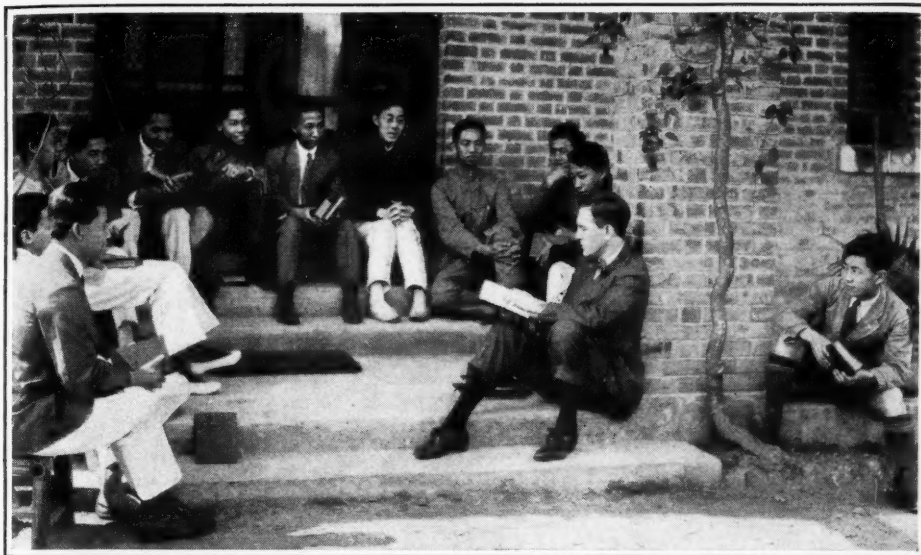
Schools and Text-Books

Another encouraging sign of progress has been the establishment of a number of well-staffed schools and colleges. In spite of the serious financial handicap under which they have been suffering, some of these institutions can compare favorably, in the quality of their teachers and the character of their educational methods, with anything that can be found in the West; and the number is steadily growing.

A third point of value has been the rapid production of modern text-books in Chinese—many of them translations of standard text-books in use in Western schools and colleges, but some of them representing entirely original work. The Commercial Press Company, which has branches in all parts of China, is publishing these volumes at a remarkable rate, and they are finding their way into the hands of students all over the land.

Lastly, there has been an interesting recent development in the direction of mass education, both in the form of night schools, open-air classes, and popular movements for the teaching of the thousand most commonly used Chinese characters.

Herein lies the hope of China, and so long as education can spread and can exert its unifying influence throughout the nation—at the same time being permeated with the self-sacrificing spirit of vital religion—there is good hope of political strife and division being overcome, and a stable government, based upon an enlightened franchise, taking the place of the present disorder and weakness.



A CLASS OF FUTURE TEACHERS IN CHINA

(There are now about 200,000 modern Chinese teachers—one-tenth the number needed. This illustration is from a photograph taken by the author, at Canton Christian College)

EDUCATION IN CHINA

BY CHARLES KEYSER EDMUNDS

(President of Canton Christian College from 1907 to 1924; now
Provost of Johns Hopkins University)

CHINA is again disturbed. Will she ever settle down? I answer: Give the Chinese time. Their problem is too complex and too large for our ready appreciation of the intricate character of the adjustments which must precede a stable and representative form of government. The present disturbances are but the "growing pains" which must accompany the adjustment of Old China to new conditions.

From most points of view education underlies the solution of China's problems. The modern student is perhaps the most important factor in the situation.

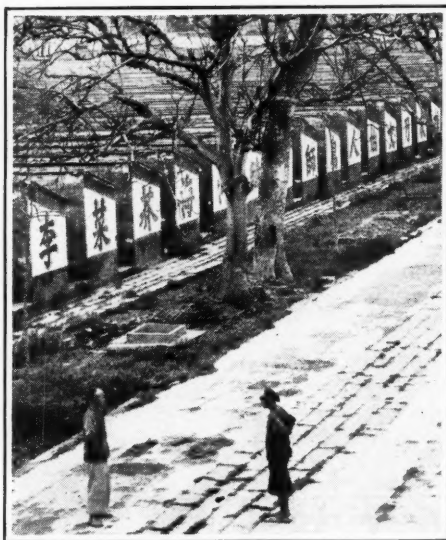
In estimating the effect of modern education in China two facts must not be lost sight of, for they are fundamental to any consideration of things Chinese. These are: China is very large, and China is very old.

If the Chinese people were to pass by at ordinary marching rate, single file, the procession would never end. For by the time three hundred million had passed, a new generation would have been born and be on its feet walking at the other end of the line! The latest figure for the population of China

is 432,600,000—more than one-quarter of the population of this globe. Her mere size largely explains China's apparent slowness in becoming a modern nation.

An American once asked a native scholar if the Chinese had recorded any discovery of the western coast of North America prior to the visits of Columbus, or even of the Norsemen, to our Eastern seaboard. Looking at his questioner fixedly for a moment, the Chinese smiled and said, "Yes, quite true. In our ancient annals there is a long account of how our mariners sailed for many days over the waters now called the Pacific, and when they had gone far enough eastward to see land and the people moving about upon it, they observed their lack of clothing and exclaimed, 'No washee business here!' and all went back home."

This was a subtle suggestion that Chinese civilization is so much older than our own, that they had to wait a long time before it was worth their while to have intercourse with us, either commercially or culturally, even to the extent of helping us in our worthy effort to keep clean.



THE OLD EXAMINATION STALLS AT CANTON

Where 10,000 students used to sit, each in his own cell, writing essays to prove qualifications for a degree and thus for public office)

But we no longer depend solely on the Chinese laundrymen in our midst for our chief impression concerning China. Today nearly three thousand Chinese students, women as well as men, in the United States give us an entirely new idea of China, which for me has been increased by the intimate contacts of twenty years living and traveling throughout Cathay.

Transition in Education

In 1903 I saw, in the northeast corner of Canton City, the long rows of examination stalls where ten thousand candidates for the first degree could sit simultaneously each in his own cell for three days on a stretch, and by writing essays embodying frequent quotations from the classics prove his qualifications for the degree and thus for public office under the old régime.

The type of education which prepared for these literary civil-service examinations was begun before Abraham left Ur of the Chaldees and was not abolished until September, 1905, A. D. We youngsters of the West cannot realize the effect of such a force acting on such a mass for such a length of time. Naturally, it will take time to overcome it.

How do Chinese students compare with American students? The distinction between the Oriental and the Occidental lies

in technique and knowledge, not in intellectual caliber. While their points of view or methods of approach differ, there is in reality no fundamental difference in intellectual character.

Formerly cherishing solely the literary excellencies of her ancient classics, China now extends her admiration to the practical realities of Western science, because in them she recognizes the instruments for the realization of new national and economic ideals.

The transition from the traditional to modern education began with the forced opening of the first five ports to foreign trade, in 1842. From 1905 to 1911 something of a modern educational system was applied with more or less success and frequent alteration. The year 1911 saw the beginning of a republic, involving necessarily a reorganization of education so far as government auspices are concerned.

The attempt to establish a democracy before adequate public education is had, and the simultaneous attempt to establish an adequate system of schools before the Government is itself sufficiently stable to handle the burden thus involved, may well be regarded—especially when the size and peculiar history of China are noted—as the greatest educational problem of all time.

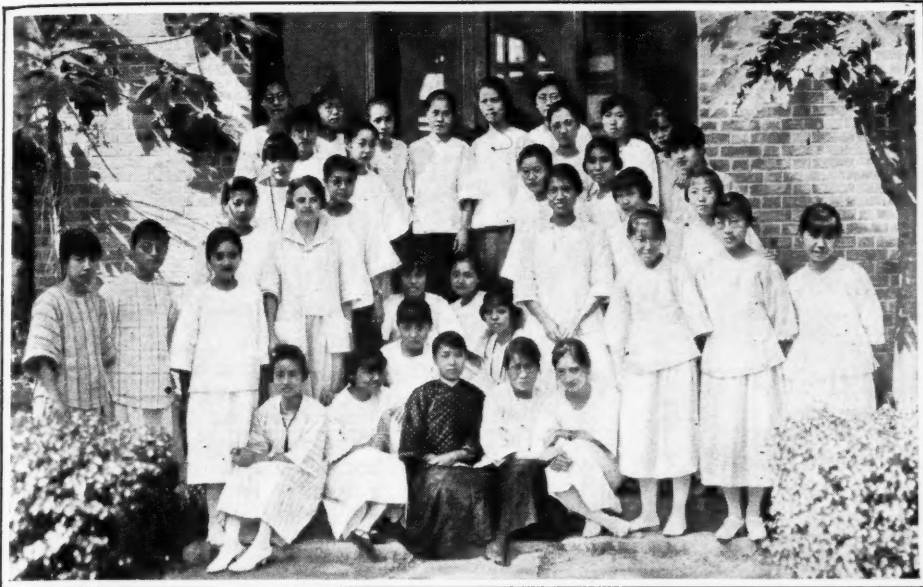
Progress in Twenty Years

What progress is China showing in modern education? With only 1,300 students in all schools of a modern sort under Chinese auspices in 1905, when the old literary examination system was abolished, within four months after the decree 5,000 modern schools were opened; and to-day there are 150,000 public schools with 7,000,000 pupils in them—girls as well as boys.

On the site of the old examination stalls in Canton now stand the modern buildings of the provincial normal school in which hundreds of future teachers are trained.

How many teachers will it take to serve a system of public schools from kindergarten to university for a population of 432,600,000? Over 2,000,000. How long will it take to develop a corps of qualified native teachers 2,000,000 strong, beginning at zero both as to men and money? Surely one generation, more likely two generations; and they only began in 1905.

When the old system was first displaced, quite a few of the old-style teachers shifted to the new-style schools, but it was not possible for very many of them to qualify



THE COLLEGE GIRL IN CHINA

(There is as yet no institution under Government auspices where a girl can get collegiate instruction, and there are only three under mission auspices)

for the modern system of instruction because of the peculiar nature of both the content and the method of the old learning.

Graduates of the mission schools have been found the most available and able teachers, but this supply is far below the demand.

Some foreign teachers have been used in the higher institutions, probably not more than 600, including Japanese as well as Europeans and Americans. At one time the number of Japanese instructors in provincial middle and normal schools was quite large; but for a combination of reasons their employment has almost entirely ceased during the last fifteen years.

The number of teachers recruited from students returned from abroad has also been relatively small. While some of the ablest of these returned students have gone into school work, there is urgent need for many more of this favored group to serve as teachers.

There are probably about 200,000 Chinese teachers of a modern sort to-day, one-tenth of the total needed. The students enrolled in the normal schools, preparing to teach, number about 30,000, most of them in schools of the lower type. There are, in fact, only seven institutions offering the full higher normal course.

A most effective and rapidly growing Teacher's College, inaugurated at Nanking in 1914 by Dr. P. W. Kuo, a graduate of Columbia University, has a faculty of some twenty returned students, ten Chinese instructors without modern degrees, and two Americans. About 500 students are in attendance. This institution has already exerted a wide influence.

Government Schools

The first modern institution under the Central Government was that established in Peking in 1862 for the training of interpreters needed for the great increase in foreign intercourse following the opening of the treaty ports. In 1866 a science department was added. In 1868 Dr. W. A. P. Martin, an American missionary who had specialized in international law, was appointed to the staff, and in 1869 he became the first president of what is now the Government University of Peking. This institution includes a normal school and four collegiate departments (letters, law, science, and engineering) with a two-years' preparatory course incorporated in each of the collegiate departments. The student body approximates 2,000 and the staff numbers over 100 Chinese, mostly trained abroad, and some seventeen foreigners.

Language schools were started also in Shanghai and Canton immediately after this Peking school. The Government next inaugurated technical and professional schools of various sorts and of varying excellence and fortune. Of these, two survivors are worthy of more detailed notice: Peiyang University at Tientsin and the Institute of Technology (formerly Nanyang College) at Shanghai. Both are national schools, supported in part by the Telegraph Administration, the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company, and the Superintendent of Customs.

Peiyang University was inaugurated in 1887 by Dr. Charles D. Tenney, at the request of Yuan Shih-kai, then Viceroy of Chihli Province. It is, perhaps, the best Government school in China, comprising departments of general arts and sciences, law, and engineering, with about 400 boarding students and a staff of some twenty Chinese and thirteen foreigners.

The Government Institute of Technology, located in a suburb of Shanghai (the New York of China), was organized in 1897 by Dr. John C. Ferguson. It now has over 600 students and a faculty of fifteen Chinese and six Europeans.

All three of these Government institutions of first rank were inaugurated under American presidents who had previously been Christian missionaries, while to-day the president of each is a Chinese.

A Ministry of Education is a constituent part of the national cabinet, and a Bureau of Education is an integral part of most of the provincial administrations; but the relation between the national and provincial educational authorities throughout the land varies greatly and is seldom very definite.

The school system embraces lower and higher primary schools, respectively four and three years, middle schools covering four years, normal and higher normal schools and universities, which sometimes include a preparatory course, covering two or three years. Thus the student may obtain thirteen or fourteen years' schooling.

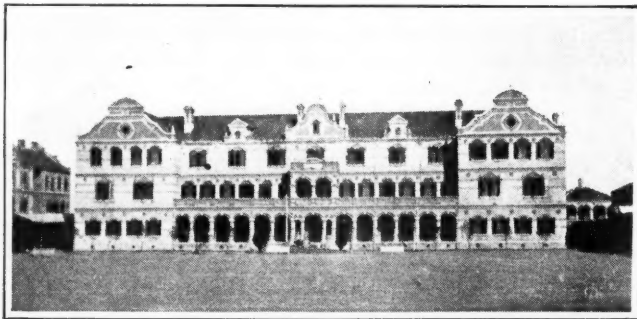
China's immediate needs give special emphasis to education in agriculture, engineering, and medicine.

Agricultural Education

Two-thirds of the entire population are engaged in some form of agricultural pursuit. The greatest and quickest economic improvement may be had in this field. Most of the methods and even the implements are the same to-day as in 2700 B. C. Though farmers for forty centuries, the Chinese have not understood two things. Indeed, we of the West have not known them for long. These are: the practice of the principle of selection in the breeding of plants and animals, and the combating of their parasites and diseases. Moreover, the area under cultivation could be greatly increased. The use of the grass lands for cattle and the development of dairy products offer great possibilities. Afforestation of hillsides is imperative; for at least one-sixth of China proper that is the only hope.

The Central Government maintains a School of Agriculture and Forestry in Peking, and several provinces have local experiment stations with some teaching. In Shantung and Szechwan a large number of elementary agricultural schools are reported. The institutions under missionary auspices which lead in this work are the Universities at Nanking and Peking, which received large grants from the funds raised for famine relief a few years ago.

At Canton there is the most striking example of international coöperation in such work as conducted by the Canton Christian College. The School of Agriculture there (with an annual budget of \$300,000 Chinese currency) is almost entirely supported by a Chinese board of managers, maintaining a staff of some twenty experts,



A DORMITORY AT THE GOVERNMENT INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY NEAR SHANGHAI
(An institution with 600 students)



A GROUP OF CHINESE PROFESSORS AT AN INSTITUTION UNDER MISSIONARY AUSPICES

mostly Chinese of American training, under the leadership of G. W. Groff, who has been supported in this work by the faculty and students of Pennsylvania State College since 1907. A great deal of investigation is being conducted and several marked advances have already been made.

Particularly striking has been the work in sericulture which has had the support of the Silk Association of America. The production and distribution of disease-free eggs of the silk worm has in five years almost completely revolutionized the production of raw silk in South China, for the healthy worm spins a cocoon which is three times the weight of that from a diseased worm, with a much stronger and longer filament. Similar work is being done at Nanking.

Engineering Schools Needed

The outstanding physical need of China is better transportation. Existing railways are practically confined to the northeastern quarter of the country. There are no trunk lines from north to south, nor from east to west. In an area equal to the United States, China has less than 8,000 miles of rail, whereas we have more than 265,000 miles. Better transportation is not only fundamental to the other industrial development of China, but is of special urgency owing to the frequency of famine conditions. It is required, moreover, as the basis for a greater political unity, since it is exceedingly difficult for a sense of nationhood to be developed among a numerous people so widely separated by rivers, mountains, and dialects, with no easy means of travel.

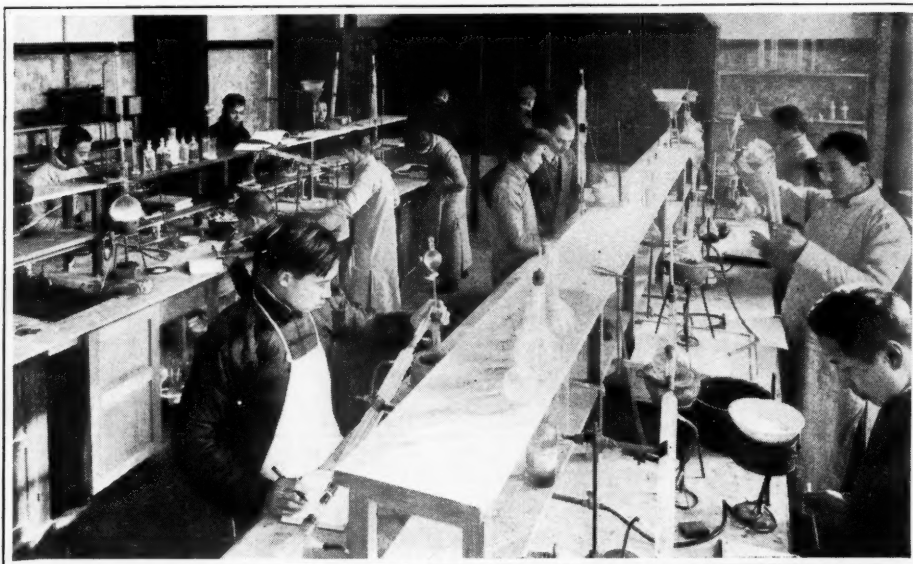
Fundamental to railway and other industrial development, is the proper exploitation of China's mineral stores, especially in iron and coal.

Several Government institutions are attempting to meet the need for engineering education: Peiyang University near Tientsin, the Government University at Peking, the Mining and Engineering College at Tangshan on the Peking-Mukden Railway, the Institute of Technology near Shanghai, and in a less substantial way at Taiyuan in Shansi and at Chengtu in Szechwan. There is also the engineering department of Hongkong University, but this cannot effect the same result as an institution on Chinese soil and under Chinese control. These institutions do not adequately meet the need, and no mission college is rendering any substantial service in this field.

Educating Chinese Doctors

Disease is rife throughout China and the death rate is probably higher than in any other country; yet China has had her own practitioners of the healing art from ancient times with quite a volume of native *materia medica*. There is no legal control of the practice of medicine in China. The old-style practitioner has no knowledge of surgery nor of the fundamental sciences underlying modern medicine.

Private practitioners of western methods are mostly in the treaty ports; among them a few Americans or Europeans, but more Japanese. There are less than 100 Chinese modern physicians educated in Europe or America, and most of these work in hospitals



A CLASS IN ORGANIC CHEMISTRY, AT NANKING UNIVERSITY

or medical schools, not as practitioners at large. A few graduates from missionary medical schools are now practicing, but they do not exceed 200 and many of them are working in mission hospitals or medical schools. On the whole, outside of hospitals and treaty ports, there are very few practitioners in China who have been adequately trained for their responsibilities.

The first hospital was established in Canton under American missionary auspices in 1835. The first Government hospital was opened in Tientsin in 1904 under army auspices. Although medical instruction began decades ago in an informal way in connection with the mission hospitals, organized medical schools even under missionary auspices have mostly developed since 1908.

A dozen medical schools under Protestant missions, with a total foreign staff of eighty and a modern trained Chinese staff of thirty, look after perhaps 600 students, of whom less than a hundred are women. Two-thirds of all the medical and also educational work in China under Protestant missionary auspices is conducted by Americans. Some 250 American physicians and ninety nurses, aided by twenty Chinese physicians (modern trained) and 400 assistants and 600 nurses, attend annually about 2,300,000 patients. The value of this medical work in removing prejudice cannot be overstated, not to

speak of its direct humanitarian value, which appeals to the Chinese sufficiently to draw contributions of some \$500,000 Chinese currency annually for the support of medical work under American auspices. The chief centers for this medical work are Mukden, Peking, Tsinan, Chengtu, Hankow, Changsha, Nanking, Hangchow, Soochow, Shanghai, Foochow, Canton and Hongkong. Most of these are aided by the China Medical Board of the Rockefeller Foundation.

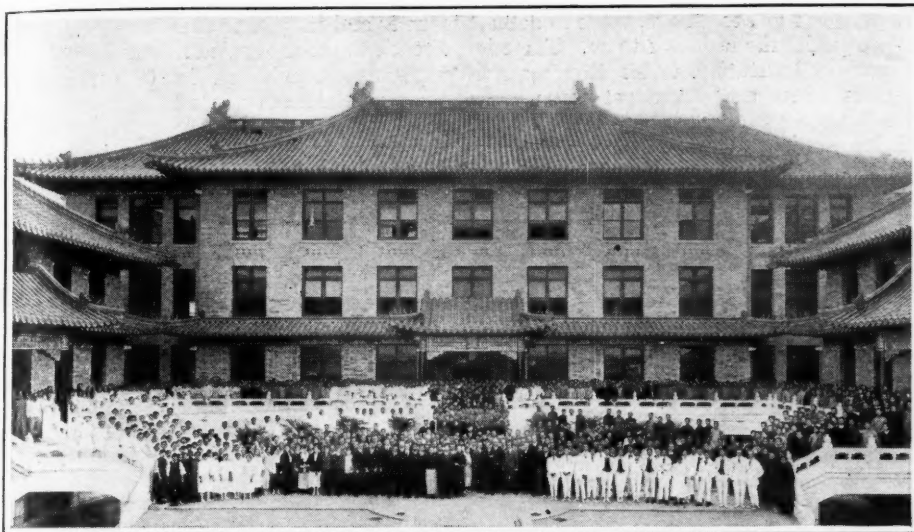
The Central Government maintains two medical schools, one in Peking and one in Tientsin, under the army. Provincial medical schools have been attempted at Tientsin, Wuchang, Nanchang, Foochow, and Canton, perhaps elsewhere also, but except at Tientsin they have not amounted to much. This Peiyang Medical School, which must be distinguished from the Peiyang Military Medical College also at Tientsin, gives probably the best medical instruction of any Government institution. It is the outgrowth of the work of Dr. John Kenneth McKenzie, of the London Missionary Society, whose skill attracted the attention of Li Hung Chang when he was Viceroy of Chihli. It is now officially recognized and supported as a Government institution. Recently it has had on its staff three French professors, supplied by the French Government. All instruction in this school is in English.

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THE STAFF OF PEKING UNION MEDICAL COLLEGE ASSEMBLED AT THE HOSPITAL ENTRANCE

(This is one of fourteen main buildings. The College operates under a charter from the regents of the University of the State of New York, and is financed by the China Medical Board of the Rockefeller Foundation. Especial attention is given to the raising of hospital standards in China, with opportunities for young doctors to practice their profession under favorable circumstances)

Special medical colleges under private Chinese auspices are conducted at Nanchang, Wuchang, and Canton, where there are two, although one of them is largely inspired by and dependent on the efforts of two American physicians. The total enrollment in these Government and special medical schools is about 700. They lack satisfactory hospitals for clinical instruction.

Besides the missionary medical schools there are a few schools under foreign semi-government auspices, inspired probably by motives of political policy. At Mukden the Japanese maintain a promising school with a staff of twenty. At Tsingtau and at Shanghai the Germans had begun modern medical schools when the war stopped their progress. At Canton the French conduct a hospital and medical school, with three physicians detached from the French army.

Work of the Rockefeller Foundation

The whole aspect of this problem has been modified in recent years by the entrance into the field of the China Medical Board of the Rockefeller Foundation, which has stimulated real progress by giving aid under proper conditions to a number of hospitals throughout the country; by affording opportunities for further training and research to a number of missionary physicians when on furlough, and to a number of Chinese

graduates in modern medicine; by assisting in the development of more adequate premedical courses at Changsha, Shanghai, Foochow and Canton, in connection with existing institutions; by strengthening greatly the medical school of Shantung Christian University where the medium of instruction is Mandarin; by aiding Hongkong University; and by the reorganization of the Peking Union Medical College, where the medium of instruction is English. This last institution has a very complete and beautiful plant and a large faculty.

The work of the China Medical Board has already greatly affected medical standards throughout China. But in view of the need for adequately manned hospitals all over the land, and for qualified private practitioners, only the surface of the problem has been touched.

What of the Women?

The education of her girls is one of China's most important problems. They had no place in the old system; yet when the new era dawned for the men, it dawned for the women also but not as yet to anything like the same extent. The proportion of female students is highest in the elementary grades, where they are about 1 to 2, and in the normal school where they outnumber the males nearly 2 to 1. But in middle schools

the ratio is 1 girl to 5 boys, while in actual college grades the ratio is 1 to 22. There is as yet no institution under Government auspices where a girl can get instruction of collegiate grade, and only three under mission auspices. Mission schools for girls have existed since 1844, but the first modern school for girls under Chinese auspices was opened in 1897. While to-day the women of Cathay are beginning to come into their own and some have even received Government aid for study abroad, much remains to be done. The educated young woman is the greatest index of a new China.

Mission Institutions

We have already noted how modern higher education in China has been stimulated by the American missionary. To-day there are some 6,000 Protestant missionaries in China, of whom 4,800 are Americans; and 1,500 of them are giving their whole time to educational work, which includes two-thirds of all the educational work under Protestant auspices. Unfortunately, the statistics of Catholic work are not available, though there are many French, German, and Belgian Catholic missions, and a few American priests work under one or the other of these missions. Generally speaking, the Catholic missions are not so ambitious from a purely educational point of view, though they are fairly strong on industrial work, and some of the best scientific work ever done in China, both in

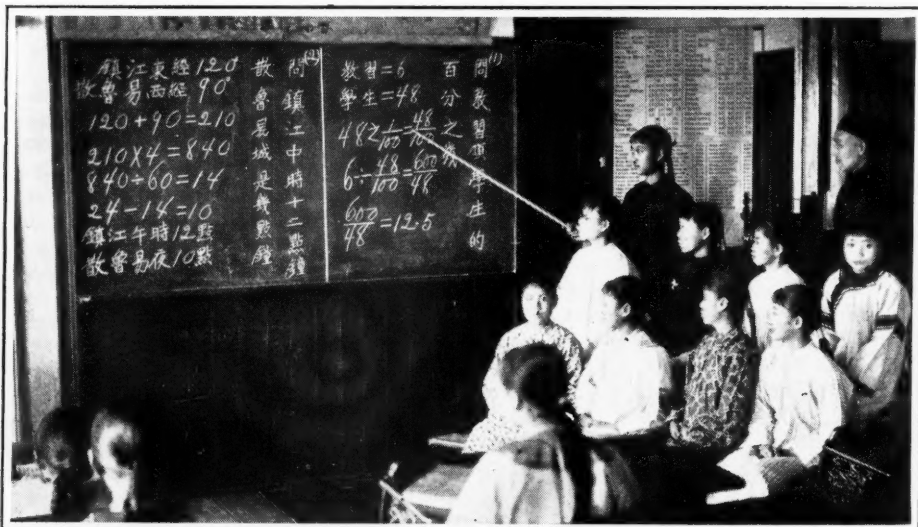
former and in recent years, has been under French Catholic auspices.

Protestant missions in China, besides their medical work, conduct about 6,750 schools ranging from kindergarten to university, with a teaching force of 1,500 foreigners (850 of them women) and 9,600 Chinese (2,800 of them women), and a total enrollment of 176,000 students (55,000 of them girls). Most of the students are in elementary and secondary grades, with about 1,500 in college, exclusive of 1,000 theological students.

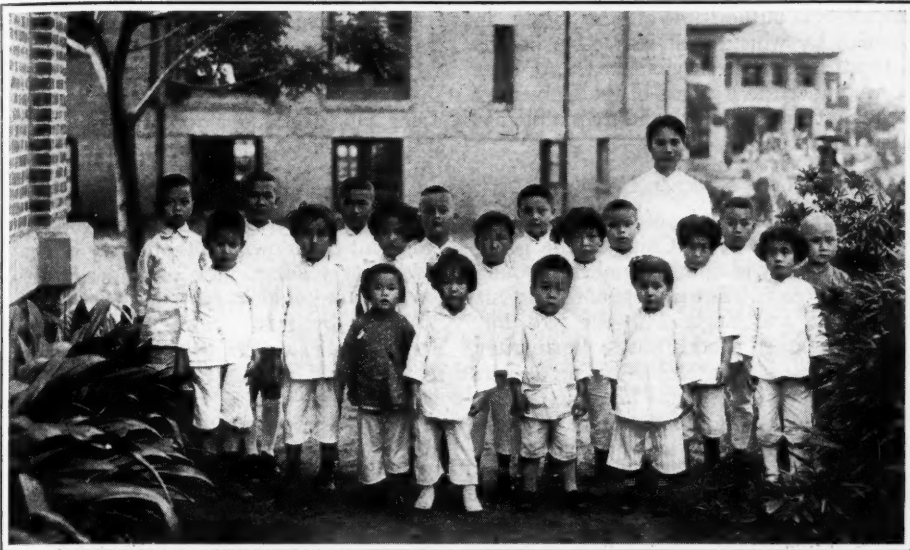
The system of Christian education is widespread. Nine-tenths of the population live in the country or in relatively small aggregates, generally clustered in hamlets and villages. These afford a small working unit with which to start in the education of the common people, whereas the training of the leaders for that more general educational conquest can best be done near the largest cities.

Although the great bulk of missionary education is still in the elementary and secondary grades, in more recent time a number of colleges have been developed.

Mission colleges, and Government institutions also, are concentrated at strategic points, as follows: from south to north through the eastern provinces, Canton, Foochow, Shanghai, and the neighboring cities of Hangchow, Soochow, and Nanking (all of which are connected with Shanghai by rail), Tsinan, Tientsin, and Peking.



A CLASS IN ARITHMETIC AT THE GIRLS' SCHOOL OF THE METHODIST MISSION AT CHEINKIANG



A KINDERGARTEN CLASS, OF WHICH ANY TEACHER MIGHT BE PROUD

(A single generation ago there were 1,300 pupils in schools of a modern sort in China. Now there are 7,000,000)

Up the Yangtze 650 miles is the educational center of Wuchang and Hanhow, which is the Chicago and Pittsburgh of China combined, being the intersection of the main trunk lines of traffic and the center of a great coal and iron region. South of Hanhow is situated Changsha, the capital of Hunan Province, the last to open to foreign influence, where Yale maintains an educational and medical mission. In the far west, at Chengtu, the capital of the great province of Szechwan, there is the beginning of a university which has one of the brightest prospects in all China.

Of eighteen mission colleges, ten are maintained as "union" institutions by several denominational boards cooperating, while two are strictly non-sectarian though Christian. These are Yali, or the College of Yale at Changsha, and Canton Christian College, which may be regarded as an inter-collegiate mission, since five American institutions maintain each a representative on the faculty of that school as part of the work of their Student Christian Association or other special organization. These are: Pennsylvania State College, Teachers College of Columbia University, Williams College, University of Pittsburgh, and Washington and Lee University. Both Yali and Canton Christian College have had a remarkable degree of financial support from the Chinese.

The significant fact as to the relative importance of education under Christian auspices is that while the Christian community is a small part of the total population, 12 per cent. of the Protestant community is in Christian schools, while only 1.4 per cent. of the people as a whole are in any school. With only $\frac{1}{25}$ of 1 per cent. of the population attending them, the Christian schools are producing, according to a recent survey, 25 per cent. of the country's constructive leadership.

In 1923, there were in China 1,096 middle schools and 107 colleges under Chinese auspices (government or private), while under mission auspices there were 339 middle schools and eighteen colleges. The total enrollment in these 1,560 higher institutions was 202,764. Student Christian Associations were carrying on in five middle schools and eleven colleges under Chinese auspices, and in 169 middle schools and twelve colleges under mission auspices. The total membership in these 197 associations was 24,135 or 12 per cent. of the student bodies.

Though no definite action has yet been taken by the Government regarding the relation of missionary education to the Government system, the subject is of growing importance.

American missionary colleges grant the B. A. degree, under the supervision of the

educational authorities of the State in America by which their respective boards of trustees have been chartered. At least six are under the Regents of the University of the State of New York and their diplomas carry the Regents' seal.

Chinese Students Abroad

An important phase of modern educational development in China is the going abroad to study of a large number of young men and women. The earliest of these went to America and England in the 70's, but the most marked exodus was to Japan after 1905 following the Russo-Japanese war. At one time there were as many as 15,000 Chinese students in Japan. Some of these on their return to China became such strenuous advocates of reform, without appreciating the difficulties which could only gradually be overcome, that the Chinese Government for a time imposed restrictions on their exodus to Japan. In more recent years the numbers have been smaller from an entirely different cause. Various actions and demands of Japan have so aroused the patriotic spirit of the Chinese students that they have now and again boycotted Japanese institutions of learning just as they have refused often to purchase Japanese goods in China.

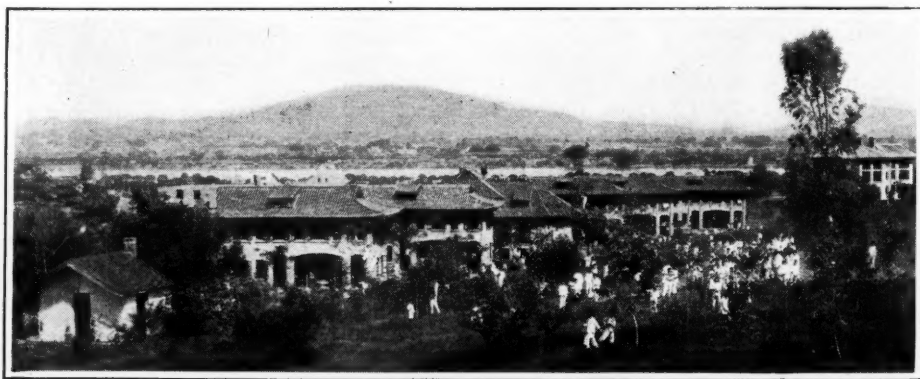
A second factor has been the establishment of the so-called "indemnity scholarships" for study in America and the development of Tsing Hua College near Peking for the preliminary training of those awarded such scholarships. This is financed from the Boxer indemnity funds returned by the United States to China. Fifty

students have come to the United States every year on indemnity scholarships since 1909. Others come on provincial scholarships, still others on their private resources. Tsing Hua has about 700 students, and a staff of thirty Chinese trained in the United States, fifteen Americans, as well as twenty Chinese without a foreign training. It has inaugurated a collegiate department of its own, so that many of these indemnity scholars now come to America for advanced work only.

Moved by this example, the Japanese, French, and also the British Governments have recently inaugurated schemes similarly financed, designed to increase the number of Chinese students who will study in their countries as well as in institutions in China under their respective auspices.

This is being recognized the importance of the student as a prime factor in the present as well as the future situation in China. This importance is enhanced when one considers the rôle China is likely to play in international relations of the future. When the late John Hay was Secretary of State, he declared that China is the key to the future of the world for several generations; while Napoleon Bonaparte, looking with eyes quite different from those of John Hay, said, "When China moves, she will move the world."

The present apparently chaotic conditions in China will in due time be corrected by the Chinese people themselves as the result of their modern education. And to the educated men also the world must look for the development of helpful international relations.



SOME OF THE BUILDINGS AT CANTON CHRISTIAN COLLEGE

(This institution has had a remarkable degree of financial support from the Chinese, though it is under American non-sectarian mission auspices. It is a most striking example of international coöperation)

THE GASOLINE TAX

BY HENRY R. TRUMBOWER

(Economist, U. S. Bureau of Public Roads)

[An article on "Motor-Vehicle Taxation," relating especially to registration and license fees, was published in this REVIEW for June. The present article, by the same author, discusses a newer form of motor taxation, first used in 1919 but now levied by all but four of the States.—THE EDITOR]

IN ADDITION to motor-vehicle license fees, the motorists of the country paid \$79,734,490 in gasoline taxes in 1924. The gasoline tax is a comparatively new method of obtaining funds from the users of highways, for purposes of improvement and maintenance.

Oregon was the first State to put such a tax into effect, February 25, 1919. Three other States—North Dakota, New Mexico, and Colorado—followed suit that same year, during which the total collections amounted to \$663,987. If place of origin be considered, the gasoline tax may rightly be called a "western tax." A one-cent rate was adopted in Oregon and Colorado; New Mexico started with two cents; and North Dakota fixed the rate at one-quarter cent per gallon.

At the close of last year thirty-six States, including the District of Columbia, were charging a gasoline tax which ranged all the way from one cent to four cents per gallon. Now all but four States—Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and New York—have a gasoline-tax law. The following table shows the development of the tax and the increase in the receipts:

GASOLINE TAX SUMMARY

Year	Number of States Collecting Tax	Gross Receipts
1919.....	4	\$ 663,987
1920.....	5	1,475,136
1921.....	13	5,302,259
1922.....	18	11,923,442
1923.....	35	36,813,939
1924.....	35	79,734,490

In 1924 there were 8 States which had in effect a tax of 1 cent per gallon; 15 States had in effect a tax of 2 cents per gallon; 2 States charged 2½ cents per gallon; 9 States charged 3 cents per gallon; and one State had a tax of 4 cents per gallon.

During the early part of this year the legislatures of most of the States were in session, which resulted in more States adopting a gasoline tax and in raising the tax rates in a number of States which had already made use of this kind of a tax for raising revenues for highway purposes. The States which have passed gasoline-tax laws are shown below, classified according to rates:

1-cent tax	2½ cent tax
Connecticut	Wyoming
North Dakota	
Rhode Island	3-cent tax
Texas	Arizona
	Florida
2-cent tax	Georgia
Alabama	Indiana
California	Kentucky
Colorado	Maine
Delaware	Mississippi
Dist. of Columbia	New Mexico
Idaho	Oklahoma
Iowa	Oregon
Kansas	South Dakota
Louisiana	Tennessee
Maryland	Virginia
Michigan	
Minnesota	3¼-cent tax
Missouri	Utah
Montana	
Nebraska	4-cent tax
New Hampshire	Arkansas
Ohio	Nevada
Pennsylvania	North Carolina
Vermont	
Washington	5-cent tax
West Virginia	South Carolina
Wisconsin	

These indicated rates are effective at the present time except for Nevada, where the increase from 2 cents to 4 cents becomes effective July 1, and in Maine the increase from 1 cent to 3 cents becomes effective July 11. The legislature of California passed a 3-cent tax law which the Governor vetoed. A 2-cent tax law is pending in the Illinois legislature. In 1923 Massachusetts passed a 2-cent tax law, which was

held up by referendum proceedings and in the 1924 fall election was rejected by the voters. At the same time when the voters of Massachusetts were voting down a gas-tax bill, the Missouri voters at a State-wide election initiated a 2-cent tax which became effective at the beginning of 1925.

The average payments per motor-vehicle for 1924 on account of the license fees and gasoline taxes are shown in the following tabulation:

State	Average License Fees per Motor Vehicle	Average Gasoline Tax Payment per Motor Vehicle	Gasoline Tax Rate Cents	Total
Oregon.....	\$24.90	\$14.01	3	\$38.91
Arkansas.....	16.50	19.48	4	35.98
Georgia.....	12.10	21.81	3	33.91
Florida.....	12.40	18.75	3	31.15
North Carolina.....	15.20	15.00	3	30.20
New Hampshire.....	21.40	8.28	2	29.68
Connecticut.....	23.40	4.50	1	27.90
Virginia.....	14.50	12.66	3	27.16
Idaho.....	18.90	7.88	2	26.78
Delaware.....	17.20	8.66	2	25.86
Vermont.....	21.70	3.77	1	25.47
Washington.....	16.50	8.92	2	25.42
Pennsylvania.....	18.00	7.40	2	25.40
Mississippi.....	11.40	12.23	1, 3	23.63
Alabama.....	12.50	11.00	2	23.50
Louisiana.....	15.70	7.51	1, 2	23.21
South Dakota.....	14.60	8.46	2	23.06
West Virginia.....	15.10	6.46	2	21.56
Tennessee.....	12.70	8.86	2	21.56
Kentucky.....	14.10	7.23	1, 3	21.33
South Carolina.....	7.10	13.53	3	20.63
Maryland.....	11.70	8.00	2	19.70
Maine.....	15.20	4.11	1	19.31
Nevada.....	10.00	8.98	2	18.98
Arizona.....	5.90	12.63	3	18.53
New Jersey.....	18.40	18.40
Oklahoma.....	10.10	8.07	1, 2½	18.17
Texas.....	12.00	4.86	1	17.76
Montana.....	9.80	7.78	2	17.58
Rhode Island.....	17.10	17.10
Utah.....	7.10	10.00	2½	17.10
New York.....	17.00	17.00
Minnesota.....	17.00	17.00
Wyoming.....	10.30	4.59	1	14.89
New Mexico.....	10.10	4.68	1	14.78
Iowa.....	14.50	14.50
California.....	5.30	9.80	2	14.38
Michigan.....	14.30	14.30
Massachusetts.....	14.20	14.20
Colorado.....	5.90	8.10	2	14.00
Indiana.....	6.30	7.56	2	13.86
Wisconsin.....	12.90	12.90
Nebraska.....	11.70	11.70
North Dakota.....	7.00	3.77	1	10.77
Kansas.....	10.30	10.30
Illinois.....	10.30	10.30
Ohio.....	9.40	9.40
Dist. of Columbia.....	4.30	4.37	2	8.67
Missouri.....	8.40	8.40

In four of the States—Mississippi, Louisiana, Kentucky, and Oklahoma—the rates

were changed during the year. The average gasoline-tax payments were larger in eleven of the States than the average license fees in those same respective States. The average license fees for all the States were \$12.80 per vehicle; the average gasoline-tax receipts were \$8.98 per vehicle for those States which collected a gasoline tax. The gasoline consumption averaged 440 gallons per vehicle in those States which reported no change in the tax rate during the year.

A Comparison with Former Toll Rates

The gasoline tax has often been compared with the charges formerly exacted on toll roads and has been called a toll, in that it tends to vary with the use of the road. It is, therefore, interesting to reduce these gasoline tax rates to a vehicle mile basis. If we assume 6,000 miles as the average annual motor-vehicle mileage and 440 gallons as the average gasoline consumption per vehicle, the following toll rates per mile result:

Gasoline Tax Rate	Toll Rate per Mile
1 cent	0.073 cents
2 "	.147 "
3 "	.220 "
4 "	.294 "
5 "	.367 "

A 3-cent gasoline tax will, according to these assumptions, mean a toll rate of less than a quarter-cent per mile, or a 5-cent tax will result in a toll rate of slightly over a third of a cent per vehicle mile. It is interesting to compare these gasoline tax rates reduced to a toll basis with some of the toll charges which motorists formerly had to pay on toll roads and turnpikes. On six different turnpikes in Virginia and Maryland only a few years ago tolls amounting to \$5.05 were charged for a total distance of 187.5 miles, equivalent to 2.7 cents per mile. If a State attempted to charge this same rate for the use of the public highways by automobiles, it would have to establish a gasoline tax of 36 cents per gallon, assuming the same mileage and gasoline consumption as in the foregoing analysis.

Collection Cost, and Exemptions

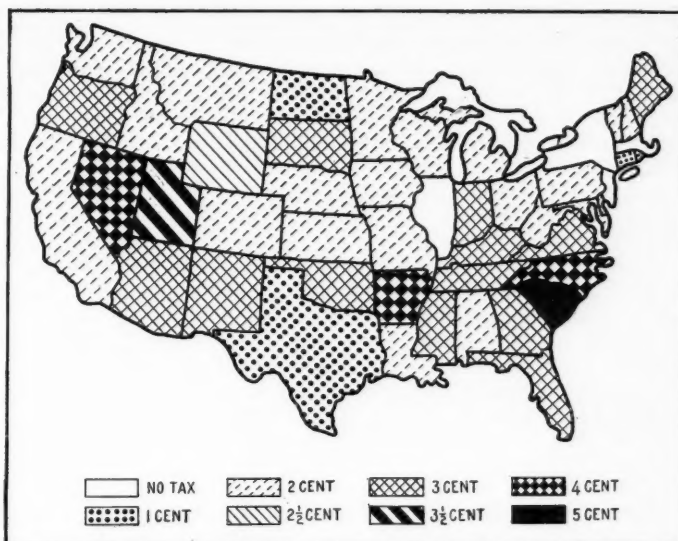
The cost of collecting the gasoline tax is very small in most of the States. Ordinarily the law provides that the tax is collected from the large oil companies which supply the distributors and retailers on a wholesale basis. Collections are usually made monthly, at which time complete reports of sales

are filed with the State officer or office whose duty it is to make the collection. Indiana, for the twelve months' period ended May 30, 1924, collected \$4,554,544.18 in gasoline taxes at a total cost of \$6,460.96. This was slightly more than one-tenth of one per cent. The collection costs included all salaries properly chargeable to that account, some office furniture and supplies, postage, printing of forms and stationery, and traveling expenses.

The gasoline-tax statutes are not very explicit in laying down precise definitions of the products to be taxed. The general intent of the legislation is to tax all fuels which are used in the operation of motor vehicles propelled by internal-combustion engines. In some States the law names gasoline and no other kind of fuel; in others, kerosene is included; and in some, kerosene is specifically exempted from the tax. Some of the laws contain elaborate provisions exempting from taxation motor fuels which are used in farm tractors, motor-boats, and airplanes, the purpose being to tax only the fuel used by vehicles operated over the public highways. Such an application and administration of the law is in accordance with the toll-road principle.

In certain States, on the other hand, all the gasoline sold within the State is subject to the tax, irrespective of the use to which it is put. Under such conditions the clothes-cleaning establishment, using a certain amount of gasoline, as well as the motor-boat operator and the aviator, all make their contribution to the maintenance of highways in proportion to the amount of gasoline they consume.

Where exemptions are allowed, based upon the use of gasoline for other than motor-vehicle operation, it is the general practice to compel the payment of the tax when the purchase is made and to permit the purchaser subsequently to file a claim



RATES OF GASOLINE TAX, PER GALLON, IMPOSED BY THE STATES

(Four States have no tax. Four levy a one-cent tax, twenty-one and the District of Columbia have a 2-cent rate, and one a 2½-cent rate. Thirteen States tax at 3 cents per gallon, one at 3½ cents, three at 4 cents, and one at 5 cents)

for a refund, accompanied by an affidavit to the effect that the gasoline was not used as fuel for a highway vehicle. The amount of gasoline used for other purposes than motor-vehicle operation can not be large, as is indicated by the money refunded in Indiana for a year's period. During the first year the law was in operation the refunds amounted to \$73,927.61, which was only 1.6 per cent. of the gasoline revenue collected.

How the New Revenue Is Used

In 1924 about 82 per cent. of the motor-vehicle license revenue was applicable to highway work by or under the supervision of State highway departments, but only 61 per cent. of the total gross receipts from the gasoline tax was disposed of in this manner.

In the case of the gasoline tax there appears to be a much greater tendency for the States to share these newly discovered revenues with the counties, and to divert them to other than highway purposes, than in the case of motor-vehicle license revenues. In seventeen of the States the gasoline-tax laws provide that the full proceeds of the tax shall be used by the State highway departments; ten of the States divide the gasoline tax revenues between the respective State highway departments and the county highway organizations; and some of the States make an equal division of the tax between

State funds and county funds. Other States turn two-thirds of the tax over to the State departments and one-third to the counties. In others, the division is made on the basis of 60 per cent. to the counties and 40 per cent. to the State. In one State three-fourths of the tax is turned over to the counties and one-fourth is retained by the State; in another State the reverse of this division obtains.

Certain States, on the other hand, allocate a part of this gasoline-tax revenue to the general fund. North Dakota, for example, places the whole proceeds of the tax in the general fund of the State, no part of it being devoted directly for highway purposes. Alabama makes a disposition of the gasoline-tax revenues by putting one-half into the general fund of the State and letting the counties use the other half for highway purposes. In a few States a part of the gasoline-tax revenue is credited to school funds. In Texas three-fourths of the tax is used by the State highway department and the other fourth is put into the State school funds. South Carolina, Montana, and Georgia divide the gasoline-tax revenues among the respective State highway departments, the county highway organizations, and the general fund.

In Georgia one-third of the gasoline-tax revenue is placed in the State highway fund, one-third is turned over to the counties, and one-third is credited to a special fund to meet the State's obligations in connection with bonds issued for the construction of a railroad. The New Mexico law provided that, for the first year, \$15,000 of the tax collected should be credited to the State fish-hatchery fund and the balance to the State road funds. It appears that in certain cases the State legislatures found deficiencies in their budgetary requirements and sought to cover these by diverting a part of the gasoline-tax revenue to purposes which are far from that of highway use. One reason why a number of the States credited a portion of the gasoline-tax receipts to the general fund is because those States have issued highway bonds, and this gasoline-tax money is intended to take care of the principal and interest payments.

Upheld by the Courts

When a number of States began to pass laws taxing gasoline used by motor vehicles, the courts were invoked to determine whether or not such a tax was constitutionally valid. The opponents contended that it constituted a property tax on gasoline, and was therefore void because it violated the constitutional provision of uniformity. The Arkansas Supreme Court reviewed in great detail the gasoline-tax legislation passed by that State. The first question was whether or not the gasoline tax was a property tax, because it was conceded by everyone that if it was, it was a violation of the uniformity principle.

The Court said that the language of the Act disclosed that it was not the intention of the legislature to impose a tax upon gasoline nor upon its sale, nor even upon its use, but that it was essentially a tax upon the use of motor vehicles upon the public highways. The extent of the use was measured by the amount of gasoline consumed, which resulted in a tax on motor-vehicle operation in accordance with the use made of the highways. When the opponents claimed that this was a species of double taxation in that the legislature had already placed a tax upon the users of the highway in the shape of an automobile license fee, the Court replied that the license fee could be regarded as a tax upon the privilege of using the highways according to the capacity of the car, while the gasoline tax was an additional tax upon the privilege of using the highways according to the extent of the actual use.

It was also brought to the attention of the Court that the gasoline tax afforded means of evasion to those motor-vehicle operators who lived close to the borders of the State and who could purchase their supplies of gasoline in adjoining States which did not have a gasoline tax, and that such a possibility of evasion constituted a discrimination against others who were compelled by their location to pay the tax. The Court admitted the possibility of such an evasion, but held that it did not render the statute arbitrarily discriminatory in a legal sense.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

The Armies of Europe in 1925

COMMISSIONS of the League of Nations have repeatedly during the past five years investigated the problem of reduction of national armaments in accordance with the declaration contained in Article VIII of the Covenant. Referring to the various plans proposed by these commissions, the British military expert, General Sir Frederick Maurice, writing in *Foreign Affairs* (New York), gives a description of the land and air armaments of Europe to-day and indicates some of the difficulties which have hitherto stood in the way of reduction.

General Maurice points out that statements purporting to give a comparative estimate of the military strength of various powers in terms of the number of men they maintain in arms in time of peace are, taken by themselves, misleading. The systems by which armies are raised and maintained in various countries have a direct bearing on their offensive and defensive power.

Of three countries each with armies in time of peace of 200,000 men, one may have half its troops in garrisons in distant places abroad and small reserves for the expansion of those that remain at home; the second may have a system which makes its army effective for the defense of its frontiers but incapable of making a rapid attack upon an enemy's territory; while the third may have a system which enables it to expand at once its peace army three or four fold, and take the field with this increased body either in attack or in defense. Between these three there is obviously no common unit of comparison such as the battleship represents in the navies. The reduction of the three armies by a like number of men may be crippling in the one case and make comparatively little difference in the others.

The three systems indicated above cover, generally speaking, those in existence in Europe to-day. They are known as the voluntary system, the militia system, and the compulsory service system. The voluntary system has been imposed by treaty upon Germany, Austria, Hungary, and Bulgaria. In each case the terms are similar though the number of soldiers permitted varies. Germany is allowed to maintain 100,000 men, Austria 30,000, Hungary 35,000, and Bulgaria 20,000. Enlistment

must be voluntary and for at least 12 years, no reserves and no military aircraft are permitted, and the weapons of all kinds are strictly limited in number.

Great Britain is the only European power which maintains an army on a voluntary basis of its own initiative. In 1913 the strength of the British Army, including the air force, was 250,000. In 1925 the strength of the army and of the air force, which has become a separate organization, is approximately the same. While the air force has largely increased, the number of soldiers has been correspondingly diminished. The terms of service are the same as they were before the war, being for most sections of the army seven years with the colors and five years in the reserve. About one-half of the British Army is always abroad, the largest garrison being in India. The reserve which is available for immediate expansion in emergency has a normal strength of 120,000 men, but that figure has not been reached, and at present the reserve numbers 99,000 men. Great Britain also maintains a territorial force, voluntarily recruited, the members of which do such training as their occupations in civil life permit. This force approximates 150,000 men.

The compulsory system is still preserved by France, Italy, Russia, Belgium, Rumania, Spain, Portugal, Yugoslavia and Greece. It has been adopted by Poland, Czechoslovakia, Esthonia and Latvia on their creation as independent states. It is therefore much the most general of the military systems.

Whatever system is maintained by a given country, when there comes a day in which national existence is at stake, the measure of military strength in men of that country in comparison with any other is not to be found in comparison with the strength of the armies maintained in time of peace, since every country will, if necessary, put in the

field all its males capable of bearing arms excepting those required to maintain the essential industries. General Maurice makes the following rough estimate of the man power of the principal European nations having compulsory service:

	Terms of Service With Regular Army	Peace Strength of Army	Strength on Mobilization	Maximum Man Power in Prolonged War
France.....	1½ yrs.	657,000	1,200,000	8,000,000
Russia.....	2 yrs.	800,000	1,600,000	?
Italy.....	1½ yrs.	308,000	650,000	7,500,000
Poland.....	2 yrs.	276,000	550,000	5,500,000
Rumania.....	2 yrs.	140,000	300,000	2,250,000
Jugoslavia....	2 yrs.	116,000	250,000	2,000,000
Czechoslovakia....	14 mos	150,000	300,000	2,200,000
Belgium.....	1 yr.	90,000	180,000	1,500,000
Spain.....	2 yrs.	180,000	350,000	3,800,000
Greece.....	2 yrs.	86,000	190,000	1,000,000

Man power is admittedly but one measure of military strength, though at present it remains one of the most important. The character of the people and the manufacturing and financial resources of the country are factors in military strength at least as important as man power.

In considering the development of military systems in Europe since the war, one is impressed by the fact that, while in 1913 there were seventeen European nations

which maintained armies, there are to-day twenty-five. Although the armies of Germany, Austria, Hungary and Bulgaria have been drastically reduced, there has been no material diminution of the number of armed men in Europe to-day as compared with 1913. General Maurice's conclusions are stated as follows:

1. The first essential condition is that a feeling of security should be established in Europe, particularly in France and in the countries bordering on Russia.

2. It will be gathered from what I have said above that the land and air armaments of Europe are to a preponderating degree due to fear of Russia and of Germany. It follows, then, that no scheme of limitations of these armaments which does not include those powers is likely to be successful. It is possible that the problems of eastern and western Europe can be treated separately, but this is doubtful since France is definitely committed to Poland.

3. It is impossible to limit either the man power or the manufacturing resources of any country and these are at present the backbone of its military strength.

4. It does not seem practicable to endeavor to limit the use of particular weapons such as poison gas, since there will be no confidence that such weapons will not be prepared in secret.

5. It is possible, given a feeling of security, to limit the power of a country to strike immediately an offensive blow.

6. The most hopeful method of seeking a limitation would therefore seem to be to encourage a general reduction of the terms of service in the standing armies, and an approximation to the militia system in those countries which have not already adopted either that system or the voluntary system.

What is Wrong With American Newspapers?

A GREAT deal is wrong with them if we are to accept the diagnosis of "A Newspaper Man," writing in *Harper's Magazine* for June. This writer is described by the editor as an editorial writer on a well-known Western newspaper. His name is withheld out of regard for his colleagues, not less than for himself, since the statements for which they stand might be locally resented. This editorial writer begins his article with the relation of an incident out of his own experience in which the owner and responsible editor of the daily newspaper on which he serves take part in a conference concerning an increased demand for copies of a recent issue containing a syndicated column of editorial opinion carried daily in the principal edition on the first page. The writer continues:

But next day, when the universally famous

column carried its customary sneer that Great Britain and Japan had deliberately hoodwinked us into signing the naval disarmament treaties of 1922 and were now deliberately cheating in their execution, did I editorially denounce the insinuation? I did not. On first joining that staff I had my experience with editorials rejected because they sought to debate directly with Mr. Brisbane; and no editorial writer yearns to fill his space quota twice. Instead, I remembered my standard instructions that, while Brisbane editorial policies are not necessarily our policies, we never weaken the prestige of a great circulation-getter by taking a direct issue with it.

Three or four days later I wrote an editorial, weakened in whatever effectiveness it may have had both by the time lapse and the "soft pedal," suggesting that evidence of British chicanery in the carrying out of the disarmament treaties was "hardly conclusive."

Instead of picturing a wholly imaginary newspaper of the future, to be conducted in accordance with the highest ideals of the

journalistic profession as it is to-day, this writer goes back to the files of his own paper during the early 1890's. On the technical side there was much in the newspaper of that day to be frankly criticized. He admits that the paper was crude, often wrong, and no doubt on occasion cruelly unjust. "But two things stand out about us: We had a sense of proportion and we were not afraid."

Under those abominably written telegraph headlines we carried each day a highly compressed but intelligently plotted view of both national and foreign news. We might not have made such a splurge when a retiring governor of Kansas was arrested on bribery charges; but we gave a far better opportunity to know what the governors and the governments of other states were doing from week to week. When Wilhelm II discharged Bismarck we may have underplayed the event's sensational aspect. But our readers were told in a few succinct paragraphs just how this had happened and what it meant.

In our Washington news we were not fed one day on White House propaganda that the President will "press for" such and such a measure, and on Senate committee-room propaganda the next day that such and such a group of Senators will resist pressure. Instead, we were given a coherent account of what each public measure of consequence was about, and a brief analytical discussion, when the event warranted it, of the struggle over its passage. I can get a far more satisfactory idea from our six- and eight-page paper of what the Fifty-first Congress was up to than I can to-day from our twelve to fifty-page paper of what the Sixty-eighth Congress is up to. Except for the fact that I was only a year old at the time, I could have written better informed political editorials in 1890.

The attitude of thoughtful newspaper men toward their own job is next considered. What is in the thought of the men who "do the dreary work of catering to the lowest and most banal taste in their community"?

Either they take a perversely ironical pleasure in emphasizing the lurid inconsequence of their labors,

or they loathe them with the peculiar hatred of men at once disillusioned in their jobs and bound to them by peculiar temperament and training useless to other industries. After nearly fifteen years of newspaper experience in all parts of the country and a fair acquaintance with the past of American journalism, I am tempted to the extreme statement that never were American newspapermen as a class so lacking in purpose or so contemptuous of their profession, morally and intellectually, as they are to-day when the technical efficiency of the press is at its height.

And this attitude tends to increase the very evils which are responsible for it. A profession that has no pride except in its technical adroitness, no sense of dignity except as regards its claim to be as irresponsible as possible, has no ethics, no courage, and no standards of taste.

I venture to charge that the lack of these things is in greater or less degree apparent in every edition of every newspaper in America. I do not say this because newspapers print crime news. Crime is properly reported as the register of our social—perhaps of our physiological—imperfection. To a less extent the same is even true of certain types of personal scandal which may or may not reach the stage of court action. Where the press shows its lack of ethics and good taste is not in reporting but in *exploiting* crime and private scandal. Where it shows its lack of courage is when newspapers, whose owners and editors fully realize the evil, exploit crime and scandal with little, if any less, adroitness and salaciousness than newspapers which make a fetish of their efficiency in such performance.

In the closing paragraphs of his article, after this rather bold and searching analysis of present newspaper evils, the writer ventures to suggest a way out:

The need seems to be for newspapers which will begin by making courage, intelligent criticism, good taste, and informative service the criterion of every news and editorial policy; and then, instead of exploiting journalistic shoddiness, will aggressively exploit their valid journalistic usefulness. The present vicious circle can be smashed only when a few representative newspapers begin putting normally aggressive circulation campaigns into operation, based on the proposal that for every column which competitors give to the current lewd divorce case they will give a column on subjects worth an intelligent citizen's attention.

Is Newspaper Publicity a Deterrent to Crime?

THE question whether the press interferes unduly with the administration of justice is discussed in the *American Bar Association Journal* (Chicago) by Victor Rosewater, who was for many years editor of the *Omaha Bee*. In this article Mr. Rosewater describes the conditions under which the modern newspaper is produced, defines the part played by the reporter, explains the policy and practice among the

best newspapers, and points out certain services rendered by newspapers to the administration of justice. On the relation of publicity to law-breaking, Mr. Rosewater remarks:

The charge that crime and the criminal, vice and scandal, are being so exploited as to make a career of lawlessness inviting, appears, at first thought, to have substantial foundation, and, so far as it holds, goes to the newspaper management rather

than to the reporter. The choice of subjects for treatment by special writers is controlled higher up and likewise the method of presentation. The story of a murderous train robbery, of a daring kidnapping, of a clever forgery, of a consummate confidence game, is sometimes told in so fascinating a manner and the arch-rogues pictured in terms so glowing, as to suggest repetition. The path to crime thus looks like the path to glory. But the same tendency springs from the adulation of the criminal by admiring women, from the gifts of beautiful flowers, or choice food, carried to the prisoner in durance vile, from the popular confusion of the brazen and the heroic. The same thread runs through the movie, the drama, the detective story, the fiction tale, the work of art. That fact,

of course, constitutes no excuse or defense for any of them over-stepping the bounds.

The true portrayal of crime and vice, however, is repellent and preventive in its influence, for the story is always a tragedy. Realization that the risks out-weigh the gains, the certainty of a bad ending, above all, the fear of exposure to the world in the press, operate to keep the weak and the wicked straight. Pitiless publicity is powerful not alone with corporate wrong-doers and malefactors of great wealth.

The police ferret out criminals, the law officers prosecute, the courts pronounce the penalties, the prison-keepers mete out punishment—the overhanging sword of publicity cools the criminal impulse and prevents crime.

Attitudes and Activities of Women in Post-War Germany

RECENT cable dispatches from Germany announced the founding of a journal devoted to the interests of women by the wealthy and prominent Baroness von Oheimb, a former member of the Reichstag. This lends special interest to an article on the attitude toward life, and the general status of women in Germany since the war. The article in question was contributed to the symposium on "Germany To-day," to which a late number of *L'Europe Nouvelle* (Paris) was devoted.

Those sections dealing with the position taken by women with respect to foreign relations, and with the new rights and ambitions of women, will probably be of special interest to our readers.

The majority of German women certainly stand for the reconciliation of peoples and for national pacifism. This is principally true of the women who vote with the Social Democrats, with tendencies which are more or less internationalist (without speaking of Communists), of those of the Center, whose inspiration is Christian and conciliatory in nature, and of the democratic and liberal bourgeois parties.

But the hard experiences of the post-war period have awakened and strengthened the national feeling and will in many German women, and it cannot be denied that the events which have occurred in the occupied territory, especially the numerous cases of families which have been expelled, and the employment of black troops, have exasperated the national sentiment. In this respect the patriotism of German women exceeds even that of the men, rousing in them strong feeling, rather than cool reason.

The family life of German women so often praised and held up as a model before the war, has naturally been affected by the economic difficulties described above. Even to-day we still hear it said, especially by the men, that a woman can find the deepest satisfactions of life only in living for the man to

whom she belongs and the children whom he has given her. It is quite true that in Germany, as well as elsewhere, our new liberties and our new fields of activity have failed to yield the satisfaction expected in the case of many women. This disillusion which was apparent even before the war has not been diminished. Furthermore, present social and economic conditions prevent the return of women to the sphere of former days, when their activities centered around their own hearthstones; the mere fact that there are a good many more women than men makes this impossible at least for the present.

The great liberty which women enjoyed during the war, with the new rights which they have acquired, has given them more character and more independence. The generation which grew up during the war was deprived of stern paternal authority, and the mother was too often so absorbed by other cares as to be unable to supplement this authority. During the war, and since, especially during the period of inflation, it was easy for young people, girls as well as young men, to earn money and escape the domination of the family. . . . As a result, the relations between the sexes have become freer and more relaxed. Especially in the higher classes of society there often prevails in this regard a cynicism unchecked by moral sentiment.

However, a strong reaction is beginning to be noted, and this is true rather among the masses than among the higher strata. This does not take the form of a return, pure and simple, to the laws and moral principles of other days. But there is a consciousness, all the stronger, of unwritten laws. The young women—and young men also—who spring from these groups, no longer consider sexual union merely as a means of "living one's life," for the satisfaction of purely physical instincts, but as something sacred, which expresses and realizes in the deepest sense—we might even say in a metaphysical sense—the lives of the two beings thus united. German women are as far removed from the Puritanical prudery and the hypocritical modesty of former generations as from the cynicism of certain circles, which appears to them worthy of contempt. They long weigh in the balance those who seek them either in a free union or in marriage—and in either case they hold the union as a sacred thing.

Centenary of Thomas Henry Huxley

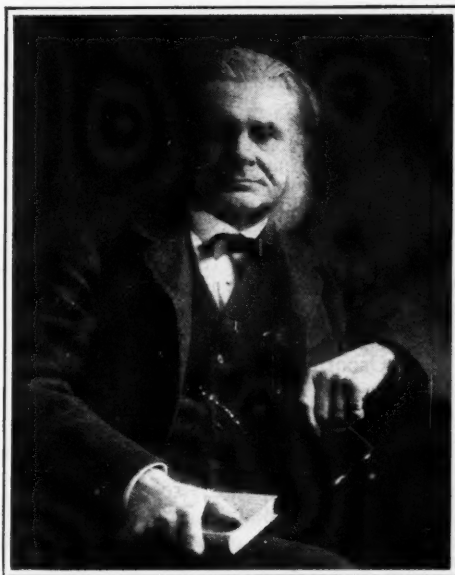
THE occurrence this year of the one-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Thomas Henry Huxley, the great British champion of the Darwinian hypothesis, has called out tributes from scientists in many countries.

Dr. Henry Fairfield Osborn, president of the American Museum of Natural History in New York City, was a student of Huxley's, listened to his lectures on comparative anatomy and evolution during the winter of 1879-80, and worked in his anatomical laboratory at South Kensington. In the current number of the *North American Review* (New York) Dr. Osborn gives some interesting personal reminiscences of the great anatomist:

When I entered this course of lectures in the autumn of 1879, Huxley was at his very best—brilliant, forceful, epigrammatic, humorous. He would enliven a long spell of anatomical description not only by a concurrent series of beautiful black-board drawings in colors, but by an occasional shaft of humor. I recall my own rapidly flying pencil and colored crayon as I sought to take down his sound anatomical descriptions and his occasional bits of humor. Always on the same evening I extended these hastily written notes from memory, writing out the entire lecture so far as I could fill in the missing gaps. Thus I am still in possession of the fullest and most mature statement of Huxley's views and theories up to 1880 as to the evolution of animal life. At this point I may quote from my "Memorial Address" of 1895, the year of Huxley's death, which was reprinted in my "Impressions of Great Naturalists" (1924):

"Huxley as a teacher can never be forgotten by any of his students. He entered his lecture-room promptly as the clock was striking nine, rather quickly and with his head bent forward as if oppressive with its mind. He usually glanced attention to his class of about ninety and began speaking before he reached his chair. He spoke between his lips, with perfectly clear analysis, with thorough interest, and with philosophic insight which was far above the average of his students. He used very few charts, but handled the chalk with great skill, sketching out the anatomy of an animal as if it were a transparent object. As in Darwin's face, and as in Erasmus Darwin's, Buffon's, and many other anatomists with a strong sense of form, his eyes were heavily overhung by a projecting forehead and eyebrows and seemed at times to look inward. His lips were firm and closely set, with the expression of positiveness, and the other feature which most marked him was the very heavy mass of hair falling over his forehead, which he would frequently stroke or toss back."

Dr. Osborn was in England at the time when the evolution controversy was at its height. Huxley was actively engaged in this controversy, while Darwin rarely re-



THOMAS HENRY HUXLEY

plied to his critics but devoted himself to quiet research.

The controversy really bore more heavily on Huxley than on Darwin; Huxley was continuously on the firing line, while Darwin rarely replied to his critics but devoted himself to his quiet researches at Down. I had an opportunity of comparing the health of the two men on December 8, 1879, on the one occasion when Charles Darwin visited Huxley's laboratory while I was a student there. Darwin was in his seventieth year, Huxley in his fifty-fourth, I in my twenty-second. I observed that Darwin stood much taller than Huxley and had a ruddy face, with benevolent blue eyes and overhanging eyebrows; his face was comparatively free from worry, anxiety, or care, while that of Huxley already showed the burdens and strains of London life. Although the younger man by sixteen years, Huxley looked less hale than Darwin. His unselfish solicitude for Darwin's strength was highly characteristic of him; from the first he realized that such a life should be prolonged by every means. Often alluding to himself as "Darwin's bull-dog," he took the brunt of the fighting.

In his logical mind he at once clearly distinguished between the enduring and well-established and the transitory elements in the whole body of the evolutionary doctrine which we now call Darwinism. From first to last he maintained that it would require years of study before naturalists could say whether Darwin overestimated the creative power of Natural Selection. In these doubts Huxley anticipated the widespread modern scepticism as to the force of Selection. As to the permanence of Darwin's rediscovery of evolution Huxley never had a shadow of doubt.

After Huxley's death his complete vindication as fundamentally of a reverent and religious nature was made, according to Dr. Osborn, when the Bishop of Ripon, Dr. Boyd Carpenter, declared himself a supporter of Huxley's guiding principles and proclaimed the righteousness of scientific truth.

Huxley once told me that his early training by a devoted Christian mother imbued him with a Puritanical reverence for the truth, a thorough knowledge of the Bible, and a strict Sabbatarianism which denied him even the enjoyment of an apple orchard on the Lord's Day! Certainly this training in absolute veracity and scorn of dissimulation fitted Huxley to combat dissimulation whenever he discovered it, as in his famous reply to the Bishop of Oxford.

Dr. Osborn quotes from Huxley's remarkable plea for the use of the Bible as an instrument of popular education, and finds the test of Huxley's reverent attitude toward religion in his choice of training for his own children and the recommendation that he made for the training of the children in the elementary schools. Dr. Osborn quotes, with italics of his own, two of Huxley's declarations on these points because of their present interest in connection with problems in American education:

"When the great mass of the English people declare that they want to have the children in the elementary schools taught the Bible, and when it

was plain from the terms of the Act that it was intended that such Bible-reading should be permitted, unless good cause for prohibiting it could be shown, I do not see what reason there is for opposing that wish. Certainly, I, individually, could with no shadow of consistency oppose the teaching of the children of other people *that which my own children are taught to do.*"

"I have always been strongly in favor of secular education, in the sense of education without theology; but I must confess I have been no less seriously perplexed to know by what practical measures *the religious feeling, which is the essential basis of conduct*, was to be kept up, in the present utterly chaotic state of opinion, without the use of the Bible."

A grandson, Julian S. Huxley, writing in the *New Republic* (New York) for June 3, quotes Huxley's famous passage on a liberal education not only as a good example of his style but as a picture of the man himself:

That man, I think, has had a liberal education, who has been so trained in youth that his body is the ready servant of his will, and does with ease and pleasure all the work that, as a mechanism, it is capable of; whose intellect is a clear, cold, logic engine, with all its parts of equal strength and in smooth working order; ready, like a steam engine, to be turned to any kind of work, and spin the gossamers as well as forge the anchors of the mind; whose mind is stored with a knowledge of the great and fundamental truths of Nature and of the laws of her operations; one who, no stunted ascetic, is full of life and fire, but whose passions are trained to come to heel by a vigorous will, the servant of a tender conscience; who has learned to love all beauty, whether of Nature or of art, to hate all vileness, and to respect others as himself.

What Shall Be Done with Our Orphan Asylums?

IT MAY be news to many of our readers that this country is actually over-supplied with orphan asylums of the old type—congregate institutions often known as Homes with a capital letter. There are about 1400 of these asylums in the United States, and they house 150,000 children. They represent an investment of about \$200,000,000, and expend annually from \$50,000,000 to \$60,000,000.

These facts are gleaned from an informing article in the *Survey Graphic* for June, by Dr. R. R. Reeder, who, for a quarter of a century has been a recognized leader in institutional care of children. Dr. Reeder begins his article with the dictum that as a permanent home for the early years of dependent children the orphan asylum should go out of business. He declares

that it is not a real childhood home, and cannot by any courtesy of speech claim to be such. But what does Dr. Reeder offer as a substitute for the orphanage? He has such a substitute to offer, and does not hesitate to affirm that it is the only possible one—namely, the family home, which he says provides the only constructive solution of the orphan and dependent child-care problem. He is convinced of this because the human family is the oldest institution of which we have any record, is the basic unit of society, antedating both State and Church, and is fundamental to their proper functioning. It is the beginning and stabilizing element in all social progress.

Moreover, notwithstanding the frequency of its break-up and its failure in the training of children, it is still the most successful institution of society.

It is the only foundation upon which to build the other great social structures of state, church and school. When, therefore, we are building our child-welfare programs upon the family home, conserving its integrity and responsibility and making every use of its inherent fundamental resourcefulness, we know we are moving in the right direction. When we are relieving parents of their God-ordained responsibilities, removing children for slight causes, making divorce easy, or failing to utilize the greatest possible service of the family home in child-care, we know we are moving in the wrong direction.

Since there are numerous family homes without children, or with but one or two children and thousands of motherly women willing, with such aid as may be necessary, to provide family care and training for orphan children, there is little excuse for building orphan asylums. Most of these institutions, if their administrative boards were so disposed, could easily distribute their wards among family homes and go out of the business of group child-care. Within twenty-four hours after the recent tornado disaster had passed, the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society was able to announce to the Red Cross that it was in a position to receive and to provide for the temporary or the permanent care in family homes of any and all children who were in need. One hundred and thirty-one different families had already made application by mail, in person, or by telephone to the Chicago office for children who had been permanently orphaned, or left destitute because of the storm. It was necessary to use only a few of these families because by far the larger proportion of the children were taken in charge by relatives. With such abundant resourcefulness for the care of dependent children in the only institution ordained for such a purpose, what stupidity it is to go right on building orphan asylums!

It is perfectly true that family child-placing demands high-grade social service, and that when done without most thorough investigation, careful adaptation and follow-up supervision it may be worse for children than even congregate institution care. The easiest being in the world to exploit is the little child. A cat will scratch, a dog will bite, a colt will kick, when abused; the little child is helpless. But the possibilities of greater happiness to the child in a family home are so far beyond anything any institution can offer that no surmountable obstacles should deter us from using this method. To fail here is to withhold all that the little child loves most.

After the Great War Dr. Reeder was commissioned to provide a relief program for over 200,000 war orphans in Serbia, a country with a population of less than 5,000,000. Certain representatives of the government ministries strongly advised the gathering of these little ones into great institutions, but the opposite policy was adopted. Dr. Reeder found the Serbian children already scattered among broken families. In some instances where the family had been entirely wiped out these children had attached themselves to any neighbor family home that would suffer them to remain. Thus, every orphan was under some

sort of family roof. Dr. Reeder advised that the children be left where they were, and that an extensive program of family aid be provided. Doctors, nurses and social workers visited the homes, opened health clinics and provided medical care for the whole family as well as the orphans. Widows and foster homes received a monthly cash subsidy, with supplementary feeding and clothing. School buildings were repaired or rebuilt.

This great army of orphans merged into all of the community interests and activities, attended school and church, took up apprentice trades and shared in the returning prosperity of the country. The result is that to-day, seven years after the close of the war, there is no orphan problem to speak of in Serbia. By taking another course we could easily have built institutionalism into the social structure of child-welfare work in that country where it would in all probability have held its place for at least a half century (Our Civil War orphan asylums are still receiving orphans of veterans of that war!).

Admitting that Dr. Reeder has made out the good case for the family as against the institutional orphanage, the question remains, what use shall be made of the orphan asylums already built in this country? Dr. Reeder's answer is that these asylums should be converted into children's clearing houses, for the admission:

(1) Of children for temporary care, awaiting the rehabilitation of their disrupted homes, through a social program which the institution should provide.

(2) Of orphans for placement in foster family homes when there are no suitable relatives to take them.

(3) Of orphans or dependent children who for good reasons are not placeable in foster homes and whose parents are not proper guardians for them.

He would have every one of these institutions become a child-study center where students in social service could learn to meet the real problems of child welfare. Family placing would so greatly reduce the numbers of children needing institutional care that the best of service could be rendered to the few most in need of it. The management in each case would become chiefly interested in the quality rather than in the quantity of the work done, in doing the best for each child and not a little for many children.

In Dr. Reeder's opinion there is need of a foundation pointing to a wiser use of money devoted to child welfare. The field of this foundation should be publicity and social service propaganda. The orphan charity is still "putting new wine into old bottles."

The Oversea Irishman Returns

THE tide of Irish news has turned until there is scarcely a line about this interesting bit of land in the American press, but the *Spectator* (London) has just run a very readable series of articles by "Oversea Irishman" entitled "Ireland After Six Years."

This writer makes interesting running comments on various industrial, social and political developments in both Northern and Southern Ireland.

The River Shannon power project, which had been thought to promise much of good, seems to critics over there to be considered somewhat of a possible white elephant except for its valuable prospective lesson in the substitution of economics for politics. The project will cost some £5,000,000 and will be handled by Siemens-Schuckert, a German firm.

In Dublin, all is green, including postage stamps, post-boxes, post-vans, telegrams, street signs and smart looking soldiers. There are no Union Jacks displayed in Dublin, and there is less evidence of extreme poverty. Street traffic and highway signs are much improved. Many American and Australian tourists were noticed, and "Oversea Irishman" says:

The great possibilities which lie before Ireland as one of the chief playgrounds in the English-speaking world are fully realized by President Cosgrave, with whom I discussed the matter. In the United States and in all the Dominions, especially in Canada and Australia, there are probably fourteen million persons of Irish blood. There is not one of these who does not cherish the ambition to visit the land of his fathers. But if Ireland desires to attract the oversea visitor in his thousands she will have to improve her hotel accommodation.

What Ireland needs more than anything else is a system of tourist hotels, similar to those erected by the Canadian Pacific Railway across Canada. I suggest that if the Irish Government, after financing the Shannon scheme, has any money over it should devote it to the development of the tourist trade. . . . But if she desires to derive full benefit from the gifts which nature has bestowed on her she must concentrate on the question of giving her visitors really comfortable accommodation.

There is little formality connected with visiting Free State officials, and the author remarks that the accessibility of ministers and their youth and enthusiasm, their democratic origin and dislike of titles, reminds him very clearly of the Dominions. He especially admires the courage of Presi-

dent Cosgrave, whose life was in constant danger for many months after he took office.

The general impression I gained from my talks with the Free State Ministers was that of optimism. The hard years were behind. There had been faults on both sides in the Anglo-Irish conflict. Let us forget the evil deeds and look ahead to the happier relationship. A decided majority of the people of Southern Ireland had voted, and would now vote, in favor of membership of the British Commonwealth. The Free State leaders believed they were sailing into smoother waters. Undoubtedly the people of Southern Ireland were rallying to the Free State as the recent elections had shown; out of nine contests there had been seven victories, and there should have been an eighth in North Dublin, where, owing to the defects in the system of Proportional Representation, a Republican was returned, despite the fact that there were nearly twice as many supporters of the Free State in the district.

For some years Ireland was likely to be self-absorbed with little time to think of external affairs or inter-Imperial relations. Her chief preoccupation was to set her house in order and get the machine of Government running smoothly. The question of appointing Irish High Commissioners or representatives in the Dominion capitals had been considered, but there were more pressing matters.

Ireland desired nothing better than to live in amity with Great Britain, but there must be no condescension on the British side. Ireland felt that she, like Great Britain, was a motherland with a culture of her own and millions of sons across the seas, who looked upon her as their spiritual home. Ireland regretted the animosity displayed toward her in certain British newspapers, and especially in a newspaper which was largely read in Ireland.

De Valera was interviewed, and when asked if he thought Ireland would approve of a monarchy, with King George crowned as King of Ireland, with a separate crown and with an ancient Irish title, he said he thought 80 per cent. of the people in twenty-six counties would vote for a republic. "Oversea Irishman" thinks that the Free State is making good, and that 75 per cent. of the people in Southern Ireland think likewise, for she has now her own flag, her army, her customs service, her membership in the League of Nations, and the right to enter into diplomatic relations with foreign powers.

Ulster, on the other hand, was depressed by the slump in the shipbuilding industry and the linen mills. The Ulster Parliament promises to be lively, with Joe Devlin and Mr. McAlister, the two Nationalists, returning, and several Independents elected along with three Labor members. The

only woman member is Mrs. Chichester, representing Derry.

For the moment there is little discussion of the boundary question either in Northern or Southern Ireland, and not a few far-sighted persons wish that the country could forget about the matter for five years, when feelings would have had time to cool down. Ulster has no intention of surrendering any territory which she considers hers by right, and I heard fears expressed that the suggestion might be made that Newry, in which Roman Catholics preponderate, but which has all its trade with Ulster and the North by reason of its geographical position, should be exchanged for an area of "bogs and mountains" in the Northwest. If such a proposal is made, Ulster's refusal is a foregone conclusion. . . .

If the citizens of the Irish Free State desire to bring the union of North and South within the range of practical politics, they can do so only by extending the hand of fellowship, and *not by force*. Despite its professed lack of interest in Southern Ireland, Ulster is watching the Free State closely.

If the Free State establishes a strong and just Government, and if, as a consequence, law and order are observed throughout all the Southern Counties, the first step will have been taken toward reunion.

Let Southern Irishmen desist from acting in an anti-British spirit, and let them by their acts prove to Ulster that they value her friendship. If Southern Ireland likes to indulge in the learning of Irish as a pastime, she is quite entitled to do so, but let her not expect Ulster to do likewise. . . . Efforts to force the pace now would end in failure. The more Southern and Northern Irishmen meet together to discuss matters of common concern, the better. I believe that eventually geography will be too strong for prejudice, and that a united Ireland will come into existence.

The worst possible way for the Free State to bring Ulster in would be by force, and the only method of attaining a unified Ireland is to wait until Ulster voluntarily throws in her lot with the South.

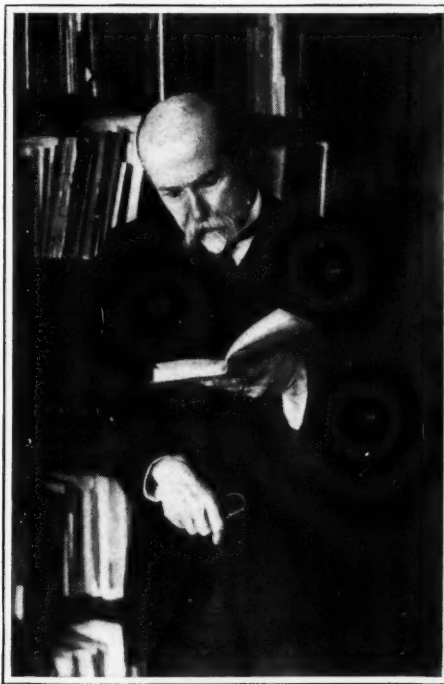
Masaryk on the American Democracy and Its Literature

MANY are the foreign visitors to the United States who pay a fleeting visit to our shores, hasten home, and rush to press with ill-digested comment on superficially observed and frequently misunderstood phenomena in our social, economic and political life. Americans are no longer so supersensitive to criticism as in the days of Mrs. Trollope and Charles Dickens. We "consider the source" and often find the source unworthy *per se*, so that we dismiss with amusement the strictures of a "Dodo" or an indiscreet "diplomat," or of an egoist like Loti. But we react very differently to a competent observer like President Masaryk of Czechoslovakia. The article by him from which we quote gains additional significance because it appears in a German periodical, the *Neue Rundschau* of Berlin. After giving something of American origins and history Mr. Masaryk says:

The culture of America I find sympathetic, and I believe it is so to our emigrants, who form a considerable part of the nation. We must learn to know in America not only its mechanistic side, but the love of liberty and personal independence. The political freedom of the Republic is the mother of the peculiar American naiveté and frankness in social as well as political and economic intercourse. The ideal of humanitarianism is splendidly exemplified in its hospitals. In America a humane and generous use of money has developed. In

many respects America offers a beautiful prefiguration of future civilization.

But I will not and indeed cannot maintain that



PRESIDENT THOMAS G. MASARYK

there is not a darker side to America and that she has no grave problems.

Here he refers to the struggle between an outworn puritanism and the modern views of social ethics apparent in our literature. He even finds certain signs of decadence in America which cannot be ascribed, as in Europe, to overpopulation and its results, and asks pregnantly:

Who knows what will be the results, not only morally, but biologically, of the turbulent mixture in the great melting pot? Nervousness and psychoses are widespread, the number of suicides waxes as in Europe, and nervousness among American women is particularly notable.

Turning to American literature, of which he has been an eager student for many years, he remarks:

Ever since my first contacts with America my interest has been concentrated upon Howells and his realism—his thesis is that realism is the method proper to democracy—in other words, the observation and artistic portrayal of the so-called everyday life, which is *de facto* non-aristocratic . . . In the "Spoon River Anthology" I was

impressed not by its poetry (which is negligible), but by its revolt against the prevailing American culture—the use of philosophic arguments employed in Europe in the time of Voltaire and before, with echoes from Browning and Faust.

Again, speaking of Dreiser, Anderson, and others as critics of American life, he finds that they imitate the Russians and the French:

We have in them a struggle against the church, against machines and their material and spiritual influence, against industrialism, capitalism, and mammonism, against narrowness, against pragmatism in philosophy and against the overprizing of science.

Continuing in this vein he observes that 'just as in Europe liberal writers are fighting for liberty of conscience and the freedom of woman,' adding:

But we observe likewise the same faults—a radical one-sidedness fighting against conservative one-sidedness, together with vagueness, uncertainty of aim, negativity, and a certain American superficiality. Here and there, too, we find a brief for free love and exaggerated sensuality.

How Rattan is Grown and Prepared

WHILE all of us are familiar enough with furniture made of rattan, few people in this part of the world realize how important is the industry of growing this curious plant and preparing it for commerce. While the rattans belong to the palm family, they little resemble in general aspect the familiar tropical trees in the shadow of which so many worthy citizens make merry on festive occasions and which grace with their rather stiff foliage our weddings and our funerals alike. There are at least fifty species of rattan, but they are all characterized by long, slim stalks consisting of a succession of nodes and internodes, the latter varying in length from 15 to 60 centimeters.

The plant itself grows to such an immense length—as much as 200 to 300 meters—that it resembles a vine rather than a tree. Its long, narrow leaves which spring from a sheath at the nodes, terminate either in a spine or a tendril, and their surface is covered with a number of short thorns or prickles. The flowers are very small and either pink or pale green in color, while the fruit, which is extremely hard, looks not unlike a pineapple and is used for manufacturing small articles. An excellent

account of the rattan industry is given in a late number of *La Nature* (Paris).

The rattans flourish only in the tropic zone in very warm and humid climates. They are found particularly in the Islands of the Sonde and the Moluccas, in Borneo, Celebes, the Philippines, Burma, Australia, and parts of Africa. The only ones at present employed in industry are those of Malaysia and the peninsula of Malacca. . . . From the fruit of one species is derived the dark red resin which is used in pharmacy and the varnish industry, under the name of dragon's blood.

After being harvested the canes are stripped of their leaves and cut into sections which vary in length according to the species, the usual length being from 4 to 6½ meters, the effort being to have as little difference as possible in the diameter of the two ends. Those species which have a hard silicious covering are then subjected to repeated twisting and bending in every direction in order to remove this coat of mail and render them more flexible. They are then sorted with respect to size and color, after which the finer sorts are washed.

The rattan to be used in basket work must be perfectly sound and very flexible as well as very strong, but the color is not very important. The rattan for making seats of chairs, etc., must be free from mould and uniform in color.

The Religious Press on the Teaching of Evolution

IN CONNECTION with the indictment and approaching trial of John T. Scopes, a high-school teacher of Dayton, Tennessee, for violation of a law recently passed by the Tennessee Legislature to prohibit the teaching in public schools of "any theory that denies the story of the Divine creation of man as taught in the Bible," there has gone on for weeks in the American press a remarkable discussion of the law in question and of the principles involved in its enactment. Public interest in the matter has been heightened by the prominence of the counsel in the case, including, for the prosecution Mr. William Jennings Bryan and, for the defense, former Secretary Bainbridge Colby and the well-known Chicago lawyer, Clarence Darrow.

Although the Tennessee law was supposed to have been adopted as a defense of religion against the attacks of modern science, representative religious journals of the country do not seem to think that their faith stands in need of this kind of defense. Several of them take exception to Mr. Bryan's easy assumption that "the hand that writes the pay check rules the school," and that everything that shall be taught in public schools must be determined by popular vote. The *Christian Century* (Chicago) declares that "there are some things which even the majority, whether as citizens or as taxpayers, have no right to do with their own money, and there are some things which they cheat and injure themselves by attempting to do." The *Christian Century* proceeds to elaborate its argument thus:

In a country where church is separated from state, where the rights of minorities are supposed to be guarded, and where some measure of freedom of thought is guaranteed by the constitution, the majority has no right to establish and maintain at the common expense an institution to promulgate a set of religious doctrines. If the Fundamentalist majority in the Tennessee Legislature can prohibit the teaching of a scientific theory which it believes to be contrary to the dogma that the writer of the book of Genesis was inspired to give an infallible account of the method of creation, a Catholic majority in some other State might with equal right prohibit the teaching of historical facts tending to weaken faith in the perfection of the Papacy, a Mormon majority in another State might forbid the teaching of anything contrary to the weird fancies of the book of Mormon, and an atheist majority

might forbid the teaching of anything reflecting credit upon the Christian religion. It is not a question as to which of these systems of doctrines is right. The whole scheme of using the power of a local majority to enforce the promulgation of a sectarian doctrine through a governmental agency is un-American to the last degree.

To say that the Tennessee law does not require the teaching of the Genesis narratives as authentic history and biology but only prohibits teaching anything contrary to them, is a mere quibble. What the law does is to establish Genesis as an infallible criterion of scientific truth. You can't teach geology, biology and anthropology at all without teaching something about the process of world formation, the relations of species, and the early history of man. Wherever Genesis touches these topics, as it does at many points, the law in intent and effect requires that the content of the teaching be determined by the Genesis narratives rather than by scientific research. This in effect requires the teaching that the Bible as interpreted by the Fundamentalists is the final authority in these fields.

For a voting majority to attempt to enforce its religious and scientific opinions by law is not only an infringement of the rights of minorities but an injury to the majority itself. It means the end of progress, the paralysis of thought, the negation of free inquiry. It is as nearly suicidal as any act of a self-governing people can be.

The *Christian Work* (New York) notes that the seat of authority in religion has changed from age to age. Up to the time of the Reformation the Church was the final test of truth. Then the Bible became the supreme authority in religion, and during the last two centuries the Roman Catholic Church has taken the Pope as its infallible guide in spiritual and doctrinal truth. But the editor of *Christian Work* now sees a group of Fundamentalists attempting to set up the vote by State Legislatures as the final test of truth, and the Tennessee law explicitly puts the interpretation of Genesis into the hands of the Legislature.

In commenting on the division in the Presbyterian General Assembly between Fundamentalist and Modernist, the *Living Church* (Milwaukee), which represents the conservative wing of the Protestant Episcopal communion, comes to the question at issue between the evolutionists and those who adhere to the older conception of creation:

If Fundamentalists would only see that fundamentals can be only those facts that lie at the very root of the Christian religion—the facts that rest on divine revelation and not on human logic—they

could scarcely be so pugnacious in denying, we will say, the scientific theory of evolution. What is there "fundamental" in the inquiry whether man was created immediately by a divine fiat or mediately by a long series of evolution through many ages, from the simplest to an ever higher form? It would seem as stupendous an act of deity to create a protoplasm that could develop into an Agassiz, as a babe that could develop into a man. Which was God's manner of creation is an entrancingly interesting study; but it does not reach into the fundamentals of the Christian faith, because the answer is not one upon which depends either our appreciation of God or our eternal salvation. Nothing else is "fundamental."

And why cannot Modernists see that if there are no knowable facts relating to the Godhead except such as depend upon an infallibility of human speculation or a demonstration in a classroom of chemistry, then God, being completely knowable, ceases to be God at all?

While it is true that a very great number, if not a majority, of the religious teachers of this country refuse to see any real conflict between science and religion, there are those among them who believe that there has been and is now much unwisdom in the methods employed by teachers of scientific subjects in the schools. The *Congregationalist* (Boston) prints an editorial by Dr. Charles E. Jefferson, of the Broadway Tabernacle (New York), in which he expresses the opinion that the action of the Tennessee Legislature is regrettable but is not without an explanation. Such a law, he says, would never have been passed in Tennessee or in any other State if all teachers had been more careful to confine themselves to the things which they know.

There are in our country not a few teachers who seem to take delight in shocking the religious sensibilities of their students, and who make a practice of saying things about the Christian religion or about the church which cannot fail to confuse the minds of young people and incense their parents. There are many of our university professors who are lacking in common sense. They know how to tear down, but do not know how to build up. They have a smattering of science, and proceed on the assumption that they know everything. Leaving their province, they plunge into the realm of philosophy and even of theology, making a great parade of their superficial learning, and taking for granted a lot of things which are not yet proved. This type of teacher is found everywhere, and it is because of this half-baked and bumptious type of pedagogic mind that many religious people in various parts of the country have become disgusted with this insolence and irreverence, and are ready to take swift and summary vengeance on these miscreants who have palmed off their speculations and theories upon youthful minds not yet prepared to pass sound judgment on them.

Foolishness on one side provokes foolishness on the other. All foolishness is only transitory.

Tennessee will live to see the day when her law will seem to her ridiculous. The evil at which the law is aimed will be overcome in another way.

The expressions of opinion thus far quoted are from Protestant sources. American Roman Catholics are equally interested in the discussion. The *Commonweal* (New York), for example, reviews a new book by Dr. Barry O'Toole, entitled "The Case Against Evolution." The *Commonweal* itself regards evolution as an open question.

There are Catholics who accept it, others who consider it a fruitful working hypothesis, others who flatly reject it. Dr. O'Toole is among the latter. But what he opposes is more the rash, and what seems to him unscientific, forcing of the theory on public and professional belief before anything at all resembling positive proof of it has been demonstrated. Monistic philosophy—a determination to assert at all costs a mechanistic explanation of the origin of life—and, by inference, the mechanistic explanation of all spiritual, idealistic, artistic, philosophical and religious ideas and phenomena—seems to him to be the basis of a vast amount of the exceedingly active pro-evolution propaganda, so largely influenced by purely materialistic, and mechanistic principles, as to be dangerously subversive of society. The *Commonweal* considers that the Dayton case is hardly likely to advance genuine knowledge of this highly complex and technical matter, but is very likely to confuse the real issues involved.

The Catholic weekly, *America* (New York), admits that it feels a certain sympathy with Mr. Bryan in his efforts to prevent the teaching of atheism to the children in the grammar and high schools in the guise of "science." At the same time *America* thinks that Mr. Bryan is leading the fight along lines that can only strengthen the position of his antagonists:

Particularly open to criticism is his statement that a majority of the people have the undisputed right to decide what shall be taught or not taught in the schools. This is only a restatement of the tyrannical principle that a minority has no rights which the majority is bound to respect. It would justify the Nebraska law declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, the Oregon school law rejected by a Federal District Court and now pending before the Supreme Court, and any regulation affecting the schools which a majority might happen to enact. Mr. Bryan has probably not reflected that if there is no limit upon the rights of the majority, then the majority could require every child in the public and private schools to take a course in atheism and immorality.

By profession Mr. Bryan is a member of the Democratic party. But like many other Democrats and the party itself he has departed far from the principles of Thomas Jefferson who wrote that there exists in no majority, however great, the right to destroy the rights of the minority. The power may reside in a majority, but political power used to destroy a right is not government. It is tyranny.

The United Church of Canada

CANADIAN Presbyterians, Methodists, and Congregationalists were formally united on June 10 and became the United Church of Canada. In the *Review of the Churches* (London) the Rev. Richard Roberts, minister of the American Presbyterian Church at Montreal, sketches the history of denominational reunion in Canada, and outlines the significant features of the new organization.

It is clear that the original impulse of union arose out of the practical necessities of the case; and though in more recent years other considerations have added strength to the union movement, it is hardly to be denied that the argument of practical necessity has been the main factor making for union. With the development of the country and in particular the opening-up of the prairie provinces, the problems of evangelization and church extension became very urgent and acute. The multiplication of small competing churches in small settlements and scattered communities tended to grow into a scandal; and none too soon it became plain that the situation must be fairly faced. Moreover, the West grew to some extent at the expense of the East; and the depopulation of considerable rural districts in the Maritime provinces presented the reverse side of the problem in the West. Here old-established churches were left stranded; and every denomination struggled to keep its churches alive—a proceeding which was obviously wasteful and improvident.

A joint committee of the three denominations adopted a basis of union in 1908. From that time on many local union churches were formed with the definite understanding that organic union would follow eventually.

Coöperation has been carried out along three lines: (a) By delimitation of territory, an arrangement under which a denomination either withdraws from or agrees not to enter a given area, leaves the area in charge of one of the churches negotiating for organic union, and encourages its members within that area to associate themselves with the coöperating church. In this way Methodists have become temporarily Presbyterians, and Presbyterians Methodists in the expectation of ultimate church union. (b) Affiliation, by which a local union church is formed under a pastor, organized under the basis of union and associated with one of the three negotiating denominations; (c) independent union, a local union church not connected with any of the three parent churches, but organized with others into a general council. The extent to which this method of coöperation has gone may be gathered from these figures:

Churches formed under the arrangement for delimitation of territory [Class (a)]...	1014
Affiliated churches [Class (b)].....	176
Local union churches [Class (c)].....	55

making a total of 1,245 pastoral charges and representing at least 3,000 preaching stations. But it should be repeated that no such measure of coöperation would have been possible had not the process been carried on under the kindly shadow of the coming event—the United Church of Canada. And it is not too much to say that an eventual failure to consummate organic union would have constituted a breach of faith with the people who had been gathered into these union churches.

The coöperation of the churches has not been limited to this field. Since 1912 there has been a coöperative arrangement of the theological colleges in Montreal, the three churches now entering into union and the Anglican Church working together with excellent results. In Winnipeg, coöperation of the Presbyterian and Methodist colleges began as far back as 1888; and similar coöperation at Edmonton began in 1913; Toronto following in 1922.

The first part of the basis of union relates to doctrinal standards, and is a summary of the faith substantially as it is held in all evangelical churches. The second part relates to church polity. This is admitted to be practically Presbyterian, probably because there had to be a middle way found between the high centralization of the Methodist polity and the local autonomy of the Congregational churches.

Dr. Roberts calls attention to the formula of subscription for ministers. Virtually all purely doctrinal matters have been eliminated from the public questions to be asked of a minister at his ordination. These questions are:

- (1) Do you believe yourself to be a child of God through faith in our Lord Jesus Christ?
- (2) Do you believe yourself to be called of God to the office of the Christian ministry, and your chief motives to be zeal for the glory of God, love for the Lord Jesus Christ, and desire for the salvation of men?
- (3) Are you persuaded that the Holy Scriptures contain sufficiently all doctrines required for eternal salvation in our Lord Jesus Christ, and are you resolved out of the said Scriptures to instruct the people committed to your charge and to teach nothing which is not agreeable thereto?

The voting on the question of entering the union has clearly shown that the strength of the union movement is in the prairie provinces, where the tasks of evangelization are most urgent. In the United Church there will be between eight and nine thousand churches and preaching stations with a communicant membership of at least 800,000 and over 4,000 ministers.

Knud Rasmussen, Explorer

WHETHER Arctic exploration is a useful occupation, whether or not the results so far obtained have justified the expenditure in human lives and in money, are questions that cannot be answered finally in this generation, yet the fact remains that this form of adventure has always held a strong appeal to man, and to men of the Nordic race especially.

Nordenskiöld, Nansen, Amundsen, Mylius Ericksen, Rasmussen, and, greatest of all, our own Peary, have inscribed their names indelibly upon the records of Arctic exploration, and who will say that the dangers bravely met and the hardships endured by those men have not set examples of everlasting moral value?

In a late number of the *Nordisk Tidskrift* (Stockholm), Mr. William Thalbitzer gives an interesting narrative of the exploits of Knud Rasmussen, one of the youngest of modern explorers, although, by merit of his achievements, a veteran in the field.

Born in Greenland in 1879, he spent his childhood and early youth in the Arctic regions; his mother was of Greenlandish descent, and his playmates and friends, Greenlanders, with Greenlandic as their only language. His birthplace, Jakobshavn, on the west coast, 69° N., was the point where Peary, in 1886, started his inland expedition. Rasmussen thus at a tender age received impulses which were to determine the future course of his life. His father, a minister of the Danish church, was transferred to the home country in 1895, but no sooner had young Rasmussen completed his high school education than he was ready to listen to the "call from the North."

During his early years he had heard strange tales of heathen Eskimo tribes, living on Smith Sound in the far-away northwestern corner of Greenland, beyond the Danish territory, of whom very little was known. Mylius Ericksen in those days was conceiving his plans for the Danish Literary Greenland Expedition to the northernmost inhabitants of the earth, the Polar Eskimos, and, happily for both,

Rasmussen was chosen to accompany the expedition. It is a question whether Mylius Ericksen would have been able to extract much valuable information from those primitive aborigines had he not had at his side this youthful and spirited interpreter who not only commanded their language but also intuitively understood their superstitious distrust for the strange visitors. It came to light that this little community—numbering scarcely more than two hundred souls—despite the centuries-long isolation from other tribes, still retained the traditions and lore common to the Eskimos of Baffin Land and Hudson Bay.

The expedition lasted through 1902-04, and in his book, "The New People," Rasmussen has related his experiences from that remote corner of the world.

In 1906-08 Rasmussen headed an expedition to Smith Sound Bay, and in 1910, to Cape York on the Melville Bay. In 1912 he set out from McCormack Bay, this time over land, to explore the interior of Greenland. The expedition, called The First Thule Expedition, went in a direction E.N.E., clean across the continent to Denmark's Fjord on the east side, from there due north, around the Mylius Ericksen

Peninsula into Independence Bay, and back to Cape York on the west side, crossing its own tracks on the last leg of the trip. This proved to be one of the most hazardous tours of Arctic exploration ever accomplished, at times climbing altitudes of three thousand feet of solid ice, and reaching the latitude of 82°.

In 1916-18 he led the Second Thule Expedition, also across the continent and back. The Third Thule Expedition, 1919-20, commissioned by Norway for the purpose of depositing supplies for Roald Amundsen at Grant Land—another of Peary's starting points—was planned and organized by Knud Rasmussen, although conducted by Godfred Hansen, a Norwegian. In 1919 Rasmussen again led a Thule Expedition, the fourth, to the east side of Greenland and back, and only recently he returned from his last ven-



KNUD RASMUSSEN

ture, the Fifth Thule Expedition, to Bering Strait.

While recuperating, at intervals between these many exploration tours, he has found time to devote to literary work, and has achieved great distinction as a writer on Polar ethnology and Eskimo folklore. Knud Rasmussen is one of the very few Europeans who write for the Eskimos in their own language, Greenlandic.

Mr. Thalbitzer says that of the many Arctic explorers of modern time, Knud Rasmussen has contributed the largest and most valuable share of our knowledge of the peoples inhabiting the Polar regions, and, in addition to that, he has communicated to those peoples, in their own language, such knowledge of our civilization and culture as they can reasonably be expected to understand or assimilate.

The French Exposition of Decorative Arts

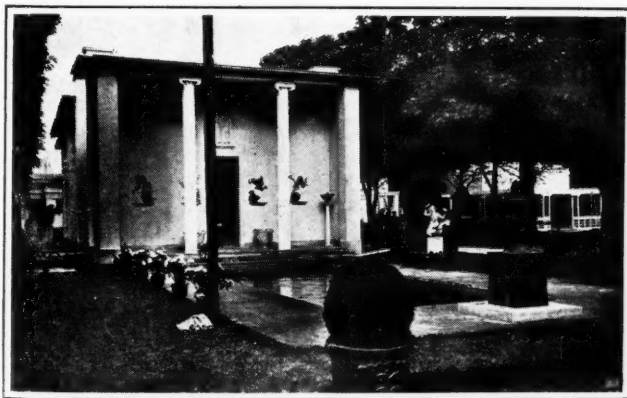
TO THE various attractions always to be found in Paris there is added at present the "International Exposition of Modern Decorative and Industrial Arts." A recent number of *l'Illustration* is devoted to an account of its various aspects and is magnificently illustrated with a profusion of pictures in color as well as in black-and-white. Space forbids us to take up the various phases of the exhibits in detail, including, as they do, architecture and gardening as well as all the household and civic arts, not forgetting the arts of dress. It is mortifying that the United States is not represented, although there is even a pavilion erected by the "Union of Sovietic Socialist Republics." Perhaps we can best give our readers an idea of the scope of this ambitious undertaking by quoting the eloquent discoursé upon the function of decorative art, which we find in the form of a *feuilleton* on the editorial page of *l'Illustration* under the excellent title of "The Education of the Eye":

The decorative art is the first-born of all the arts, in every sense of the word. The vocation of making pictures had its origin in the desire felt by our ancestors of the stone age to adorn the caves wherein they lived. It was, indeed, the desire to embellish and idealize the humble accessories of his daily existence, which led primitive man to discover the arts of sculpture, of engraving upon wood and stone, of making pottery and of making jewelry. The art of decoration is that which comes closest to our bosoms, that which is most intimately intermingled with our thoughts, that which most powerfully impregnates with beauty our imagination and our sensibility. It is at once the most humble and the most human of all the arts.

Its influence upon humanity is decisive. A chair, a table, a carpet or a bit of wall paper suggest more strongly the residents of a house than a painting by Rubens or a symphony by Beethoven.

Continuing in this vein the writer emphasizes particularly the profound influence exerted upon young minds by that constant education of the eye derived from environment:

The true educator of the eye is not a Claude Monet, a Raphael, or a Michel Angelo, with whom we have but rare and fleeting contact, but rather the unknown painter who designed the flowers upon the paper that covers the walls of our bedroom or the arabesques of our dining-room curtains; who chose the colors of the carpet in our dining-room or juxtaposed the colored silks in our cravat. His work is always under our eyes. He creates in us an equilibrium which may be true or false but is decisive. The ornaments of the chimney-piece, the carving of the sideboard, the table service, the flower vase, book-bindings, lace and embroideries—these are our professors of aesthetics. It is these which the infant in his cradle studies through long hours of reverie. Unconsciously there is formed in his mind a theory of plastic beauty which endures.



SWEDISH PAVILION, EXPOSITION OF DECORATIVE ARTS

Where Stands Japan?

TO THE pages of the *Revue Hebdomadaire* (Paris) Senator Lucien Hubert contributes one of the most illuminating articles yet published regarding present conditions in Japan. He starts from the point of view that Japan is going through one of the most severe crises of her history.

Premising that the population of the Island Empire at the present time is 77,000,000, which means 154 inhabitants to the square kilometre, the Senator shows that since Formosa, Korea and China are antipathetic to the Nipponese, it has become part of the logic of Japan's outlook to seek outlets for her surplus population in other countries. The drift of Japanese emigration is four-fold: (a) to China (i. e., Manchuria) which contains 200,000 Japs already settled there; (b) to the South Seas, with 45,000 Japs in Australia, the Dutch East Indies, the Philippines, New Caledonia and Singapore; (c) to South America, where Brazil counts 32,000 Japanese; (d) to North America, with its 258,000 Japs—125,000 in California, 114,000 in Hawaii, and 20,000 in Canada. Says the Senator:

There are thus 650,000 Japs already living permanently in foreign lands, and the Japanese Government encourages this emigration in order to relieve the situation created by surplus population at home, in its political, its economic and its revolutionary aspects. A recent (1923) budget set aside 400,000 yen (\$80,000 par) for the promotion of emigration, while a special publication, the *Shoku Min*, or *Colonization*, appears frequently to point out the advantages to Japan of having her "nationals" in other lands. Naturally, the idea of Japanese exports enters primarily into this consideration, since Japan is an "over-producing" country. During the war, Japanese exports, owing to the enforced idleness of Europe's industrial centers, "boomed" from 1915 onwards. Japanese metal and textile production for European markets leaped from comparatively modest, to positively gigantic proportions. Cotton exports were 30 per cent. of the total trade, and silk products were valued at \$20,000,000 on yearly export. Since the war closed, the Island's iron and steel production has dropped by at least 300 tons daily, and the crisis has injured her production of railroad *matériel*, steam engines, electrical machines, chemicals, artificial manures, her glass and ceramic, her toy and her mother-of-pearl button trade. In 1919 the Japanese construction docks employed 150,000 hands; to-day there are only 35,000. It is not surprising, therefore, that the Japanese Minister of Commerce should recently have admitted that the industrial future of Japan looks bad.

The Senator declares, however, that the Japs are striving hard to escape from their

national marasmas. They are working hard to improve their technique, under the instruction of imported German specialists. They are seeking, too, to regain their footing in China, where the Americans have succeeded in more than partially ousting them. And the Senator declares that were it not for the purchase of their silk commodities by the United States, the yen would be in a poor way. Senator Hubert seeks to point the moral of the case:

The industrial crisis is at the root of a certain marked *malaise* (unrest) which unquestionably prevails throughout the whole scheme of Japanese society, which at all points, is decentralized (*dé-saxée*). There is, for instance, a pronounced movement of large bodies of countrymen to the towns—a bad thing for a country depending so largely on agriculture. Thousands of acres are idle to-day for lack of hands, and a corresponding deficit is noted in the rice crops. In the towns and cities, mortality, due to congestion and bad housing, is on the increase, and these evils have led to popular discontent and spasmodic uprisings. The worst result is that Socialism (in its new Bolshevik guise) finds it easy to make an opening and to spread its obnoxious influence, and although the Japanese are, in the main, a loyal people to their sovereign, the Socialist ideal is gaining ground among the *Intelligentsia*. A Young Japan Society (the *Koku-Sikai*) has grown up under the Government's patronage and is now teaching a body of political doctrine resembling Fascism. The new idealism is abroad for a great extension of civic liberty.

Senator Hubert shows that many causes have contributed to the present disillusionment of Japan, who since 1919, has had perforce to lay aside her pretensions to a grandiose rôle among the Powers. (a) She failed badly at the Peace Congress to carry her ideals of race equality. (b) The reality of her friendship with Britain is doubtful. (c) Shantung was restored to China. (d) Her naval aspirations were nipped in the bud at Washington. (e) The effects of the anti-Japanese movement in the States remain yet to be realized. These are the material setbacks; but Senator Hubert finds moral deterioration as well. He says:

The Japanese, moreover, appear to have lost all recollection of their pristine warlike valor and achievement. It is true that every official effort is being made to revive the military spirit, but it would seem that only a menace from the outside will ever succeed in unifying the disintegrated national elements. Whence will that menace come? It would seem that Nippon is preparing for it. Since 1924 the Army and the Navy have been reorganized at all points. Reductions in man-power

have corresponded with increases in *matériel*, and if the Japanese Navy has only 350,000 tons in dreadnoughts, their quality and capacity are undeniable, while her efforts to construct a great aviation arm are not less than heroic. Japan is at the cross-roads. Evidence has of late been given that her old fighting spirit may have returned. Not long ago a

Japanese citizen slew himself because he could not reconcile his conscience with Tokyo's surrender to Washington. To-day the patriotic suicide's cenotaph is a head-center of national homage and devotion. At this particular juncture, too, Tokyo has shown willingness to hearken to the overture of Moscow.

Development in Dutch Guiana

IN a recent newspaper article the Governor of Dutch Guiana, A. J. A. A. Baron van Heemstra, is quoted as having expressed a desire to welcome American capital and its attending enterprising spirit to Dutch Guiana or, as it popularly is called, Surinam, after the river which flows through it.

Dutch Guiana has a mixed population of some 110,000 inhabitants, 40,000 of whom live in its capital, the city of Paramaribo. There are Dutch, British, Hindus, Javanese and Chinese. The original inhabitants were the Indians, whose descendants live far in the interior.

When slavery was abolished in 1863 the Negro workers on the plantations refused to labor any longer and formed themselves into bands under their own chiefs in the dense forests, whence they made raids on the plantations, destroying crops and committing other outrages till the government put a stop to it.

The colony, four and a half times the size of Holland, produces sugar, rice, cacao, maize, coffee, molasses, bananas and rum. Furthermore, there is Para rubber, gold, silver, mica, earth for porcelain, slate and phosphate-containing stones. The climate is not unhealthy and the heat is tempered by sea breezes.

The Dutch periodical, *De Vaderlander*, of April 3, 1925, contains an article by E. H. Umbgrove on Dutch Guiana.

Seventy-five years ago the colony was flourishing, but, with the abolition of slavery, it went into decline and since then has been receiving yearly subsidies from the home government. Various means were resorted to to replace the Negro labor but with indifferent success, till British Indian coolies were found to be good substitutes. But the British Indian Government stopped further exportation under labor contract. Finally an attempt was made, which proved eminently successful. Javanese from the overcrowded Island of Java were induced to sign a five-year labor contract for plantation work with the privilege of remaining thereafter, the local government setting aside places for settlement and granting homesteads. They are excellent workers, obedient, thrifty and law-abiding. More-

over, they are accustomed to Dutch rule and agree with the climate, similar to that of Java. All that is now necessary is to import them in sufficient numbers and reopen the plantations. The former dykes and waterworks can be restored with little money. Rice, maize and cassava are always sure of stable prices and they are even better than in the Dutch East Indies. Forty-five picol (Malayan measure—136 pounds) of *padi* rice is produced in Dutch Guiana by primitive cultivation against thirty-five on Java, while the former lies less than half the distance from the great rice markets. In Java the average of dry seeds of maize is 0.7 tons per hectare, while in Surinam it runs at least to two and one-half tons.

Cassava ripens in Surinam in about ten months, while it takes a year and over in Java, where it produces seven tons against fifteen tons per hectare in Surinam. Some maintain that cassava production is far more lucrative than sugar, that its cultivation is easy and that modern machinery means quick production.

The Netherland Trading Company, the *Algemeene Bouw en Exploitatie Maatschappij* (General Cultivation and Exploitation Company), and *De Wille Stad* (The White City) use modern machinery on their plantations.

In *De West Indie Gids* Dr. C. T. Schoch, ex-member of the Colonial States, gives further data.

In order to regulate the importation of contract labor the local government instituted an immigration bureau, which is maintained by taxes—15 cents per working-day for every contract laborer. That, besides regular taxation, proved to be the straw that broke the camel's back. With such burdens the plantations could not be run with any profit and the owners proposed to the government to turn over the profits of the enterprises to the treasury instead, after allowing for a reasonable profit for the owners. After strong protests the government finally, as a temporary measure, relieved the owners of the labor tax for the years 1923, 1924. The tax itself is inappropriate, as nearly all Javanese remain permanently and save the government their return passage. Moreover, it is a government measure and not one of private individuals. The Immigration Bureau should be part of the government machinery.

On a visit to Amsterdam, Governor van Heemstra induced those who have interests in Dutch Guiana to coöperate and form an association to that effect. Due to his representations, a Council of Enterprises was

formed combining all plantation, trade, shipping, banking, gold and balata interests, with the West Indian Chamber of Commerce and the Surinam Study Syndicate as outside members. American capital is already interested in bauxite and gold

exploration, cotton cultivation and posson tree exploitation.

But he adds a word of warning that before all Dutch Guiana should retain its typical Dutch character, the Dutch language and the Dutch supremacy.

Is Europe Played Out?

A WELL-KNOWN professor at the University of Berne, Monsieur Gonzales de Reynold, addresses himself, in the *Revue Générale* (Brussels), to a study of the question whether Europe is on the edge of general disintegration and collapse. The subject, he admits, is not a very new one, and he recognizes that all over the world there are seers who declare that the words of the Bible prophets and the predictions of the Apocalypse are gradually being verified in the actual condition of Europe. He has, he says, hearkened to the bearers of evil tidings who spoke as follows:

Egotism has caused the crisis which to-day is wrecking Europe and demoralizing America. The crisis can no longer be faced and overcome; it is too late. A war far more terrible than the last one is fast approaching, and the nations are marching through seething revolution to anarchy. The churches are powerless; the clergy are blind; corruption and misery advance hand in hand. There is no authority. The League of Nations holds some very dangerous and illusory views on the questions of disarmament and peace.

Monsieur de Reynold is well aware, as he admits, that self-styled prophets have existed in all times of unrest, but he declares that although our own era is not different from other critical eras, there are among these seers men who are far from being fools—Ferrero, the historian, Spengler, the philosopher, writers like Bainville, who all go so far as to assert that human retrogression may enter into the plans of Providence. However, the main point is: Has Europe come to the end of its tether? M. de Reynold replies in effect:

Not sentiment, but common sense, must deal with that question. Undue optimism, which weakens the intelligence, must be avoided, quite as much as dark pessimism which destroys the will to exertion. An impartial consideration of existing conditions in Europe must allow that, though Europe is in a state of collapse, when compared with pre-war conditions, such a phenomenon is the normal result of all catastrophic manipulations. . . . The comparative calm which for many years preceded the war was in itself a singular phenomenon in the history of the world, which has had but a few such peaceful eras

since the advent of Christ. We are judging the hysteric conditions of to-day by the measure of the restful and serene second half of the nineteenth century. To-day's greatest danger, however, lies in the low condition of the intellectual and moral outlook of the nations—their egotism, their contempt for discipline, the anarchy of their ideals. If Europe is to perish, it will perish "at top"—intellectually.

The Swiss professor goes on to elucidate this, and shows that the new European ideals which are subverting the old régime, although antagonistic to our minds, contain in them a sufficiency of attractive and sound truth to make them acceptable to thinking people in many countries. He explains:

At the East is Russia of the Soviets, dominating and tyrannical, yet, despite its aspect of autonomous federalism, a form of government more solid and united than was ever any Tsarist government. This Soviet government possesses a dual appeal: (1) It teaches a doctrine which fascinates the masses, in as much as its simplicity is the measure of their intelligence, while its violence, or subversiveness, arouses their primal instincts. Then (2) it has all the glamour of a formidable organization breathing power at all points—a gigantic army fully equipped and adequately disciplined, inspired always by a propaganda based on the lessons of a vast experience of methodical revolutions—the combination of idealism with the required militarism to carry out the ideals, which are just of the type which appeal to half-baked intellectuals. . . . If all Europe were agreed to fight Bolshevism, it would be short shrift for Sovietism, for the Bolsheviks themselves admit that but for smoldering revolution in other countries, they could not themselves exist. They trust in the coming of the great explosion throughout the nations of Europe, which shall enthrone Sovietistic ideas, and they are confident in their power to lay all Europe under the spell of their ideals. And if they fail in Europe, they have the alternative of being able to apply their propaganda to the Eastern world. The Soviet leaders hold, however, that European nations are not sufficiently organized to withstand their organized propaganda, and, with others who judge profoundly, affect to see that Europe's resistance to their ideals is daily diminishing.

The writer seeks to explain Europe's incapability for resisting Bolshevik propaganda, on the ground that the world of to-day is not governed so much by politics as by psychology. Men no longer face

realities, he says, since few have any real convictions or principles to guide them. They fall back on Utopias, and in every nation there have grown up, within recent years, large bodies of men and women who cling to the belief that mankind is now sufficiently advanced to be able to dispense with authority. The Professor disposes of this fallacy by suggesting religion as the only remedy. He says, in effect:

Authority like that of the Bolsheviks, which has no spiritual basis to correct its materialism, cannot endure. Europe can only find salvation by reforming herself intellectually and spiritually, and by casting out from herself what is intellectually and ethically bad. Europe must raise up the light of authority within herself, and in order to do so, she must seek to recreate the Kingdom of God within her, by dethroning those masters of the great European illusion who have brought her to her present pass, namely, Rousseau (the Atheist) and Kant (the Apostle of the unfettered Will).

The Rise of Weather Insurance

A COPIOUS fund of interesting information concerning the growth and present state of different kinds of weather insurance in the United States is presented in the last number of the *Bulletin* of the American Meteorological Society (Worcester, Mass.) by Dr. Andrew H. Palmer, formerly of the U. S. Weather Bureau and now a specialist in crop and weather insurance for a western insurance company. The development of such insurance has raised a host of difficult problems, the gradual solution of which is providing for weather insurance a sound basis that formerly was conspicuously lacking.

Disregarding marine insurance, which is primarily insurance against unfavorable weather, the oldest line of distinctly weather insurance written in this country is hail insurance on growing crops. It is now conducted by three different groups of business organizations; viz., (1) mutual hail insurance companies, (2) fire insurance companies writing hail insurance as a side line, and (3) State governments. In 1924 total hail insurance premiums in the United States amounted to about \$40,000,000.

In both the Dakotas, hail insurance is automatic, and premiums are collected by the State in a manner similar to that provided for the collection of taxes. In Montana and Nebraska hail insurance premiums are collected in the same way, but the insurance is optional, and takes effect only upon the application for such insurance by the owner or the tiller of the soil.

Hail insurance in large volume can be written only where there is a large acreage of crops to insure, and where at the same time the probability of destructive hailstorms is present in such degree as to make the growers of crops conscious of the need of protection. These two factors coexist in a marked degree in the North Central States. Kansas, North Dakota and Iowa, ranking in the order given, lead all States in the amount of hail insurance in force; in fact, these three States together have more than one-half of the total hail risks in the United States.

Hail insurance is now written on all kinds of growing crops. Rates of premium paid for this insurance vary with the kind of crop and the location of the field where it is produced. As an example of the amplitude in rates it may be stated that the rate on cereal crops varies from $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in Oregon to 16 per cent. in Colorado and Wyoming.

Dr. Palmer points out that hail losses are usually of the "conflagration" type; either very large or very small. Many companies engaged in this business have failed on account of inadequate reserves.

Hail insurance is written on growing crops which represent goods in prospect rather than goods in existence, and expires almost coincidently with the transformation of prospects of wealth into actual wealth, consisting of useful or marketable products. It covers a limited period, the period of development of crops. Some policies state that the company's liability ceases at noon on September 15, others provide that the company ceases to be liable as soon as the grain or other crop has been cut or picked. As the hazard insured against in hail insurance originates entirely in forces over which man has no control, the moral hazard is slight.

The erratic nature of the hail hazard is proverbial, and is evident in the following record of hail insurance loss ratios for the United States. (A loss ratio is simply the proportion of the total premiums collected which was subsequently paid back to settle claims for losses incurred.)

Year	Loss Ratio	Year	Loss Ratio
1914	48.2 per cent.	1917	50.7 per cent.
1915	121.3 per cent.	1918	63.7 per cent.
1916	87.3 per cent.	1919	47.8 per cent.

In South Dakota the State Hail Fund has been experiencing loss ratios exceeding 100 per cent. for the past four consecutive years, and the loss ratio for 1924 is said to be over 230 per cent.

Wind-storm insurance has become one of the most promising side lines of the fire-insurance companies, and its annual premiums now amount to more than \$30,000,000 in this country. We are told that the havoc wrought by the tornadoes near

Lorain, Ohio, in 1924, and in southern Illinois and Indiana in 1924, more than doubled the demand for insurance of this character.

Rain insurance has made great strides in the United States since it was introduced by an English company in 1919. It is now written as a side line by about forty American fire insurance companies.

Premiums in 1924 totaled about \$8,000,000, and in 1925 are expected to reach approximately \$12,000,000. During the first few years, few, if any, of the companies writing this line made profits from it. However, with the revision of rates based upon scientific principles, and with the introduction of more refined practices, rain insurance has within the past year or two become established as a money-making side line.

Rain insurance does not cover property damage. Its significant feature lies in the fact that while it reduces slightly the net profits of a business enterprise when fair weather occurs, it at least assures a return of the investment when rain falls. It is especially designed for events or business enterprises dependent upon public patronage. It partakes of the nature of public service in that it removes an unavoidable risk and helps to stabilize business, incidentally promoting success and prosperity.

The most remarkable development in this class of insurance has been the collection by the Rain Insurance Association of elaborate rainfall statistics, which now provide a scientific actuarial basis for rates. This has been a gigantic task, and the results have a wide range of usual applications not limited to the insurance field. The association is also developing the plan of having its own trained rainfall observers everywhere.

The insurance of fruit trees against frost is now well established in California, where a great many growers prefer this kind of protection to the expensive process of orchard-heating.

A beginning has been made in a type of insurance that covers weather hazards of all kinds in a blanket policy; but thus far without marked success.

The U. S. Department of Agriculture asserts that 75 to 85 per cent. of the damage sustained by growing crops results from unfavorable weather. Crop insurance is, therefore, essentially weather insurance. If the farmer purchased a separate insurance policy covering each of the various weather hazards—hail, windstorm, frost, heat, drought, flood, etc., there would be little or no margin left for profit. Moreover, insect pests and plant diseases are other natural hazards to be considered.

Various committees of Congress have investigated the possibility of federal crop insurance during the past five years, but the matter has never progressed beyond the investigation stage. It is safe to predict that government crop insurance will not be provided during the lifetime of anyone now living. Recognizing the widespread demand for a blanket policy insuring growing crops against all natural hazards, the progressive fire insurance companies have provided this accommodation to a limited extent, with indifferent success thus far.

Drought caused the failure of three companies which attempted to write general crop insurance in the Northwest in 1917. So far as known, no crop insurance was written in the United States during the following two years. In 1920, two large fire insurance companies experimented with crop insurance as a side line, and several other large companies have added this line since that time. Because of their large reserves, these companies have been able to succeed where others have failed, but crop insurance is still in an experimental stage.

The Past and Present Wage-Earning Occupations of Americans

THE trend of occupations of the American people during the seventy years between 1850 and 1920 forms the subject of an article by Mr. M. Z. Jones, of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, published in *Monthly Labor Review* (Washington). The information presented is based upon the decennial reports of the occupational census of all persons 10 years of age and over in the United States. The census of 1850 did not show the occupations of women, but these are given from 1860 onward.

It has been commonly believed that the ratio of skilled workmen to the total

population has fallen off greatly since the days of our grandfathers, owing to the introduction of various kinds of automatic machinery. Statistics do not bear out this idea, as a general proposition, though of course some of the skilled trades of 1850 have waned or entirely disappeared with changes in the habits and tastes of the people. Many skilled trades, on the other hand, show a marked increase, while some are of quite recent origin. The writer says, for example, that in the building trades:

The use of steel for framing has accounted for the new trade of structural-iron worker. This was shown separately for the first time in the census

return for 1910 when 124 workers per million of population were reported in this trade. They had increased to 178 per million in 1920.

The bathroom, a luxury enjoyed by few families in 1850, has become almost a necessity. Only 81 plumbers per million of population were employed in 1850, but almost 25 times that relative number were needed in 1920. Electric lights were unknown in 1850, while now practically all of the large buildings and a large proportion of homes are equipped with electricity for lighting. Thus 2,014 electricians per million of population were reported in 1920 as compared with 667 in 1900, the first year for which a separate report was made for them. Most of the other trades, when measured by the change in population, increased rapidly from 1850 to about 1890 or 1900 and then began to fall off, in some cases, even more rapidly. Notwithstanding the changes in building construction, however, carpenters and joiners have increased in almost the same proportion as the population during the 70-year period but brick and stone masons, plasterers, and marble and stone cutters have decreased perceptibly when compared with population. Brick and stone masons and plasterers combined numbered 2,733 per million in 1850 as compared with 2,525 masons and 620 plasterers in 1890 but decreased to 1,314 masons and 362 plasterers in 1920. Marble and stone cutters are only about one-fifth as numerous as they were in 1890 and one-third as numerous as in 1850. Stone is now, to a large extent, cut at the quarry, by machinery, only the finer work being done by hand.

The occupational statistics reflect in an interesting way the habits and customs of seven decades ago as compared with those of to-day. For example, paper-hangers were very scarce in 1850. At that period the families that indulged in the luxury of wall-paper did not, as a rule, employ a paper-hanger. The proportion of paper-hangers reached the high-water mark in 1900, decreased slightly in the succeeding decade, and fell off from 278 to 177 per million between 1910 and 1920. Why this great decrease?

Here are some more salient facts to show how "times have changed":

The principal wood-working shop crafts have decreased amazingly since 1850. Coach and wagon makers, an important trade at that time, have decreased from 673 to 182 factory operatives per million of population in 1920. Wheelwrights have almost faded from the picture. Only 35 per million were employed in 1920 as compared with 1,323 in 1850. Wheels are no longer made by hand as in the early days, machines having replaced this trade almost entirely. The identity of some wheelwrights employed in factories has probably been lost in the group of factory operatives, but this would not materially affect the number shown. The coopers' trade, a very necessary one in 1850, is also fast disappearing. Steel drums, pails, sacks, and other containers have been substituted for the old wooden barrel.

In the metal-working trades, machinists have increased to more than seven-fold during the 70 years—1,939 per million of population to 7,586—

more than half of this increase occurring in 1910 and 1920, the automobile era. Boiler makers and pattern and model makers also have increased. Blacksmiths, however, have decreased greatly. Back in 1850 the blacksmith was a very important individual in any community. He made all the metal parts of the wagons, except the axle thimble, welded the broken parts of almost any kind of machinery or made new parts, made his own horse-shoes and horseshoe nails, and many other things. Now new parts for most machines may be obtained for less than it would cost to have the blacksmith repair the old ones. The automobile and motor truck are crowding the horse-drawn wagons off the roads, literally as well as figuratively, and those that are used are made in factories. There is little left for the blacksmith to do, and as a consequence he is rapidly disappearing even from the rural communities.

Stationary steam engineers and firemen have grown from 510 per million of population in 1850 to 3,651 in 1920. All we need to do is to look around and see the thousand and one uses to which the steam engine is now put in order to understand this increase. Locomotive engineers and firemen were shown separately for the first time in 1890, when 1,104 per million of population were employed. This number had increased to 1,904 in 1920.

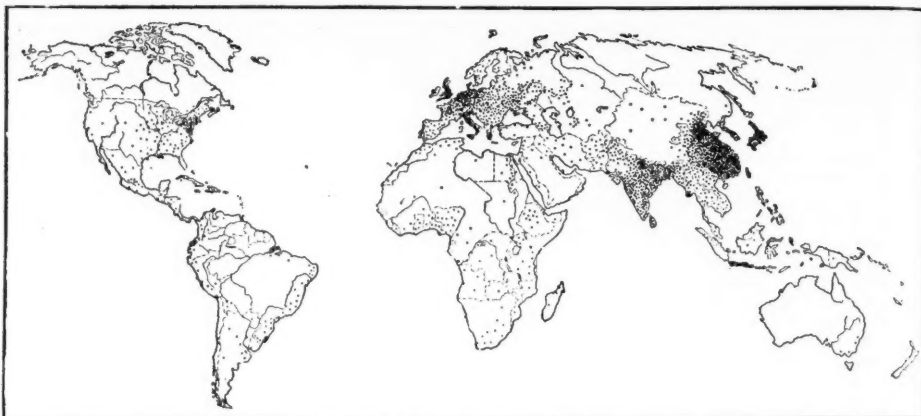
The increase in bakers is due largely to the substitution of "store" bread for the home-made variety.

The 982 harness and saddle makers per million of population in 1850 had been reduced to 189 factory operatives in 1920. The advent of the automobile and motor truck has, of course, had a great deal to do with this reduction.

There were more than twice as many draymen, hackmen, teamsters, etc., in 1920 per million of population as in 1850, although the relative decrease since 1900 has been tremendous. Here again the effect of the introduction of the automobile and motor truck is apparent. The new occupation of chauffeur sprang into being to take the place of a large number of teamsters and drivers. This occupation was reported separately for the first time in 1910 and increased from almost 500 per million of population in that year to 2,697 in 1920.

Sailors and deck hands have grown fewer and fewer with the decrease in American ships. Our shipping industry was quite important in 1850, and 3,044 sailors per million of population were employed. By 1920 this number had shrunk to only 519 per million.

The proportion of domestic servants was highest in 1870, and the largest decrease in any decade occurred between 1910 and 1920. The number of clergymen and lawyers per million population has not varied much from decade to decade. On the other hand, dentists are more than four times as numerous in proportion to population as they were in 1850, architects are seven times as numerous, and physicians, after maintaining a nearly steady rate down to 1910, have fallen off considerably in proportional numbers since the latter year. Barbers, hairdressers and manicurists have increased relatively almost seven-fold during the period covered.



DISTRIBUTION OF THE WORLD'S POPULATION

(Each dot represents 1,000,000 inhabitants)

The Geography of Population

THE cover of a current issue of *Commerce Reports* (Washington, D. C.) contains a map depicting the relative densities of population of the different parts of the world. The map is especially instructive because it is drawn on an equal-area projection and is therefore free from the misleading distortions of the Mercator projection, so widely used for statistical charts. An article descriptive of the map is contributed by Mr. H. M. Strong, of the Department of Commerce.

The subject with which this map deals is one concerning which a majority of people are ill-informed. How many Americans realize, for example, that if the entire population of the world were set down within the boundaries of the United States, excluding Alaska, our average density of population per square mile would be less than that now prevailing in England, where the density of population is 17 times as great as in our country?

Different factors have affected the growth of population in different parts of the globe. Thus, says the writer,

Three island areas, England, Japan, and Java, stand out because of their dense population. In England the crowding of peoples is due to industrial development. In Japan it has been chiefly the result of intensive agriculture carried almost to the limit of production as related to subsistence, and only recently have the elements of manufacturing entered to further increase the density. Java represents entirely different conditions. It is a tropical island, within a few degrees of the equator, containing a large area of level, highly fertile, and well-watered land. Also the Dutch have maintained

stable political conditions in Java for many years, thus favoring the development of a highly productive tropical agriculture. Java and Cuba, each a tropical island, are strongly contrasted. Both are approximately the same size, yet Cuba has about 3,000,000 people as compared with 34,000,000 in Java.

The dense populations of continental Asia are based on intensive agriculture and relatively low standards of living. Only in recent years has manufacturing developed in the vicinity of Shanghai and Hankow, Bombay, and Bihar-Orissa section of India, southwest of Calcutta.

The crowded conditions in northwest Europe and to some extent in Italy have grown out of manufacturing. Here the people are not raising as much food and raw materials as they need, and consequently here where buying power is relatively high and demand large is the great import market of the world.

Mr. Strong disposes of a widespread fallacy regarding the relative density of population in tropical countries. He says:

The dense population in tropical countries like India and Java and the crowded conditions in some port cities of the Tropics have given an exaggerated idea of the large number of people living in these regions as a whole. The Tropics in general are rather sparsely peopled, as shown by a survey of the regions crossed by the Equator in South America, Africa, and the East Indies, though the coastal regions of Brazil and the sections around the Gold Coast in Africa are fairly well inhabited. In these areas agriculture and mining have stimulated growth of population, while markets in the United States and Europe create demand for the minerals and crops they produce.

Some plateaus in tropical regions, where climate is cooler than on the lowlands, are conspicuously well peopled, namely, Abyssinia, Peru, Colombia, and Mexico.

The map shows areas of vast extent

which are now very sparsely populated, and we are told that these regions will probably never support a large population.

The fertile black soil strip across southern Siberia can support a fairly dense population, but those lands in Asia, which are at present almost vacant, will for the most part remain sparsely peopled. In the desert area between the Caspian Sea and eastern China, some irrigated lands will claim a few people, but the high, dry, cold desert of western China can support but a few nomads. The greater part of Siberia and northern European Russia as well will remain sparsely populated. Had suitable conditions existed in northern European Russia, the overcrowded conditions of southern and western Russia long ago would have peopled these lands. Similarly, most of Siberia never can support a dense

population because of its short growing season, low rainfall, and intense winter cold.

Arabia, the Sahara, southwest Africa, and the interior of Australia are deserts which never can be well peopled. The people now living in Australia occupy only the humid areas; on the northern and northeast coasts the climate is tropical with a rainy and dry season.

South America on the whole is sparsely peopled. The vast unsettled region of Brazil and Bolivia near the Equator will not acquire a dense population under present conditions. The southern part of Argentina, except near the Andes, is relatively dry. The section west of the Pampas also is deficient in rainfall, irrigation being necessary to produce crops. In northeastern Argentina, however, where cotton and similar crops can be grown, settlement may occur.

When Puss Goes a-Fishing

A WELL-KNOWN ichthyologist of the American Museum of Natural History in New York, Dr. E. W. Gudger, has a *penchant* for collecting out-of-the-way facts in various departments of biology. His latest undertaking in this line forms the subject of an article in *Natural History*, the Museum's monthly journal, entitled "Cats as Fishermen."

That puss relishes a diet of fish is generally known. "Unless it be catnip," says Dr. Gudger, "there is nothing else on the earth or in the waters under the earth for which cats have such a violent fondness." Many a domestic tragedy has centered about a bowl of goldfish and a hungry feline. However, cats have also the reputation of showing a marked antipathy to getting wet. Active fishing operations on the part of a fisherman who lacks the advantages of lines, nets or other gear would be likely to involve a considerable amount of wetting. To what extent can a cat overcome its natural aversion to the water? The answer, furnished by numerous instances cited by the author, is surprising. Many cats not only wade into the water after their finny prey but actually swim and dive. A large proportion of the stories cited relate to millers' cats.

These cats, domiciled at mills to keep down the plague of mice and rats, catch water rats as well as house rats and presently develop the habit of going into the water after their prey. In this water they will find fish, their best-loved food. Suppose, then, that a cat in trying to catch a water rat makes a misplay and catches a fish—in this may not improbably be found the beginning of the habit of deliberate fishing.

Of a cat at a mill in Aberdeenshire, Gordon Stables, author of books on cats, relates that she was "an excellent swimmer and fisher, and as fond of water as an Irish spaniel."

When fishing, she did not confine herself to any one portion of the stream, and whether deep or shallow it was all one to pussy. The boys, too, of the neighborhood, were not long in finding out, that by whatever part of the rivulet they saw the miller's cat fishing, there they would find trout in greatest abundance.

Perhaps even more remarkable is the fact that cats have sometimes acquired the habit of not only catching fish but also bringing them home to their masters.

Charles H. Ross gives us two very concise accounts. He says that a Mr. Moody of Jesmond, near Newcastle upon Tyne, had in 1829 a remarkable fishing cat which he had owned for a number of years, and which "caught fish with great assiduity and frequently brought them home alive. Besides minnows and eels, she occasionally carried home pilchards, one of which, about 6 inches long, was once found in her possession."

Mr. Ross' second account is quoted from the *Plymouth Journal*, an English publication, of June 1828, in which it is stated that:

"There is now at the Battery, on Devil's Point, a cat, which is an expert catcher of the finny tribe, being in the constant habit of diving into the sea and bringing up the fish alive in her mouth, and depositing it in the guard room for the use of the sailors. She is now seven years old, and has long been a useful caterer. It is supposed that her pursuit of the water rats first taught her to venture into the water, to which it is well known Puss has a natural aversion. She is now as fond of the water as a Newfoundland dog, and takes her regular peregrinations along the rocks at its edge, looking out for her game, and ready to dive for it at a moment's notice."

THE NEW BOOKS

National and International Topics

The Roots and Causes of the Wars (1914-1918).

By John S. Ewart. George H. Doran Company. In two volumes. 1204 pp.

In the early stages of the World War we were deluged with massive official publications of various colors—white, yellow, red, blue. These books were supposed to include the full "case" of each government represented, so far as the origins of the War were concerned. At first they were hailed in this country as valuable official statements, but as the War wore on and finally the Armistice came and the nations came together at Versailles to formulate a peace treaty, the usefulness of these bulky documents was largely discounted, for in many points they were controverted by the test of history and in others they were seriously questioned. In any event, their very bulk made them unavailable to the general reader. Now that a decade has passed and many things are revealed which before were hidden, a Canadian author, Mr. John S. Ewart, has ventured to analyze the whole subject. In order to do this, he had to deal with an enormous mass of documentary material and condense his findings into a form which might serve the reader for reference purposes. One may agree or disagree with Mr. Ewart's conclusions—and of course extreme partisans on all sides will take exception to what he says—but his statements of fact are so explicitly made and so fully fortified by references to their sources that they cannot be ignored or belittled. Mr. Ewart is a distinguished lawyer of Ottawa.

Immigration Problems: Personal Experiences of an Official. By Victor Safford. Dodd, Mead and Company. 280 pp.

Many writers of diverse viewpoints have written about the American immigration system, but very few books of this character have come from the pens of men who have actually been engaged in administering the system. Mr. Victor Safford entered the immigration service over thirty years ago. He has had a hand in drawing up almost every new immigration law and regulation that has been adopted within that period. In his present book he begins with the picture of the old Ellis Island, as he first knew it, and traces the evolution of our modern immigration problems, which are more complex, it would seem, than ever before.

The New Barbarians. By Wilbur C. Abbott. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company. 251 pp.

Professor Abbott is an American nationalist, self-confessed and unafraid. He represents a group of thinkers in this country who look upon American democracy as a natural outgrowth of tendencies that were manifested at the very beginning of our history

as a nation. This democracy of ours has already had a test of 150 years, yet it always has been and still is regarded as an experiment. The world in general does not look upon this experiment as a failure, yet from time to time it has been vigorously attacked, and about the middle of the last century Lord Macaulay in England preached its funeral sermon. Professor Abbott discerns in the propaganda let loose by many of our most recent immigrants an attempt to install here a wholly different kind of democracy, European in its origin but untested in the main by European experience. The question with him is, shall these newcomers have their way and make over our democracy with all its heritage and historic background, into something abstract and untried, or shall "the faith of our fathers" still stand in their land?

Education in East Africa. Report Prepared by Thomas Jesse Jones. Phelps-Stokes Fund. 416 pp. With maps and illustrations.

The attitude of the rest of the world toward the Continent of Africa has changed perceptibly during the present century. We now no longer think of Africa merely as the "Dark Continent." We have begun to study it as a land where various peoples are developing what we term civilized life. A most serious and systematic attempt to learn what is really going on in Africa has been made in recent years by education commissions under the auspices of the Phelps-Stokes Fund, in cooperation with the International Education Board. The first of these commissions dealt with West, South and Equatorial Africa. The second has confined its efforts to East Africa and its report has been prepared by Dr. Thomas Jesse Jones, Chairman of the Commission. This report, like its predecessor, is a wonderful fund of information concerning the religious, social, hygienic and economic conditions to be found in East Africa to-day. It is only by a thorough study of these conditions that the educational needs of the native races can be intelligently stated. Yet, strange as it may seem, this report is the first attempt to assemble such data in an orderly manner. The facts he presented were obtained through cooperation with governments, educational foundations and missionary societies.

Fresh Tracks in the Belgian Congo. By Hermann Norden. Boston: Small, Maynard & Company. 303 pp. Ill.

In this book a veteran traveler relates his experiences in a recent journey from the Uganda border to the mouth of the Congo. It contains readable accounts of some regions in Africa which many years ago came to be known to white travelers as "darkest."

Brazil: After a Century of Independence. By Herman G. James. Macmillan. 587 pp. Ill.

Although our trade relations with Brazil are growingly important, we in the United States have comparatively little first-hand information about the country. The fact that Portuguese instead of Spanish is the national language of Brazil may be partly responsible for the retarded state of communications between the two countries. At last, however, we have a compact and readable account of Brazil from the pen of a wide-awake American who has had personal contacts with the land and people and is able to tell Americans the things that they are most eager to know about the greatest as well as the youngest of the South American republics, for it must be remembered that the change from Empire to Republic occurred as recently as 1889. In his book Mr. James points out that great impetus was given to our trade with Brazil as a result of war conditions. About the same time there was brought about a marked improvement in travel facilities between the two countries, and the World's Fair at Rio in 1922 drew many American visitors to Brazil. Mr. James spent more than a year in the country, and was able to add to his personal observations and impressions much authentic information which was never before obtainable in the English language. He has an illuminating chapter on the life of the Brazilian people.

Civic Sociology. By Edward A. Ross. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company. 365 pp.

Professor Ross has written a new kind of textbook in so far as he has combined a concrete statement of certain major social problems with a presentation of what are commonly called civic problems. His purpose in the selection of topics for discussion seems to have been to bring to the student's attention those current questions whose solution seems likely to bring about the greatest progress of the community as a whole. He has chapters on the family, child welfare, education, standards of social distinction, social defense against crime, poverty and its relief, and the social side of business. In the section devoted to civic problems Professor Ross has something to say about personal freedom, obedience to law, freedom of speech, religious freedom, the promotion of peace among nationalities, the place of party, the citizen as voter, and other subjects which in our day have a definite bearing upon the success of American democracy. Intended mainly for high-school students and college freshmen, the book should be the means of stimulating interest in the vital problems of American society and should have its part in producing a sane and rational leadership in our political life. Professor Ross has given many years to the study of the subjects treated in this book, not only in America but in other lands as well.

Noteworthy Biographies

The Life of Sir William Osler. By Harvey Cushing. Oxford University Press. Vol. I: 685 pp. Vol. II: 728 pp. Ill.

Some surprise has been expressed that at this day a work of more than 1400 pages should be devoted to the career of a contemporary man of science, however eminent in his profession. The man in the street fails to associate the name of Sir William Osler with any special discovery of recognized importance in the field of medicine, as he does associate the names of Sir Joseph Lister and William Harvey and other eminent workers of the past. But Dr. Cushing's biography of Osler was not written merely to record his professional achievements, significant as they were. It was intended to present a picture of a striking personality, which we cannot help believing would have been surprisingly attractive to his contemporaries even if he had never chosen medicine as a career. Osler had rare scholastic and literary gifts which endeared him to thousands beyond the bounds of his profession. In our own country there have been few parallel instances. The names of Oliver Wendell Holmes and S. Weir Mitchell are perhaps the only ones that will readily occur to most of us. Born in Canada, in an environment not especially promising, young Osler made a rapid advance in his profession, first at Montreal, then at Philadelphia and at Baltimore, where he had a most important part in building up the medical department of the Johns Hopkins University, and, in his later years, at Oxford. These periods of his life are all graphically represented through his own letters, as selected and arranged by Dr. Cushing. During the Great War Dr. Osler was sadly bereaved by the death of his son, Edward Revere

Osler, who was himself a great-great-grandson of Paul Revere, the Revolutionary hero.

A Player Under Three Reigns. By Sir Johnston Forbes-Robertson. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company. 324 pp.

No English actor of this generation has enjoyed greater popularity in America than Sir Johnston Forbes-Robertson. After fifty years of professional life this veteran of the stage sets down his recollections of a career as player and actor-manager that has been noteworthy on two continents. Yet throughout the book the author's references to himself and his successors are meager. He seems content to provide the reader with portraits and anecdotes of his associates—Henry Irving, Miss Terry, the Kendals, Hare, Tree, Edwin Abbey, the Frohmans, and many writers and painters. Perhaps it is not generally remembered in this country that besides being one of the most distinguished actors of our time Sir Johnston Forbes-Robertson has been a portrait painter of distinction.

George Louis Beer: a Tribute to His Life and Work in the Making of History and the Moulding of Public Opinion. (Privately printed.) 164 pp.

The career of so scholarly an American as the late George Louis Beer is assuredly deserving of something more than the rather transitory fame arising from his services in the Paris Peace Conference. This memorial volume, privately printed, is made up of tributes offered by former associates and colleagues of Mr. Beer in America and Europe. These tributes show, what the best-informed

Americans already knew, that Mr. Beer's reputation as a student of political science and notably of the British colonial system was even wider in England than in this country. As author of "The Commercial Policy of England Toward the American Colonies," of "Cromwell's Policy in Its Economic Aspects," of "British Colonial Policy," "Origins of British Colonial System," and "The Old Colonial System," for which he was awarded the first Loubat Prize in 1913, he had attained the first rank among specialists in colonial history, and his familiarity with that field of inquiry made it natural that he should have an important part at the Peace Conference especially in the disposition of outlying territories and the formation of "mandates." His colleagues bear emphatic testimony to the fact that Beer's work in the Conference was that of a statesman rather than of a scholar. Yet there was perhaps no representative of the English-speaking peoples who had a finer background of

exact scholarship. A foreword to the present volume was contributed by Col. E. M. House, while Prof. Charles M. Andrews, of Yale, writes on Beer as the historian; A. E. Zimmern, on "The Scholar in Public Affairs"; W. H. Shepardson, on "The English-speaking Peoples"; and James T. Shotwell, on "The Paris Peace Conference." Brief appreciations are contributed by Lord Milner and others.

George Washington: Country Gentleman, By Paul Leland Haworth. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company. 336 pp. Ill.

This is an entertaining account of Washington's home life and activities as a Virginia farmer. A chapter is given to his farm records, another to his methods of conserving the soil, another to his experiences as a stockman, and one of the most interesting of all recounts Washington's work as horticulturist and landscape gardener.

Other Timely Books

Everyman's House. By Caroline Bartlett Crane. With a Foreword by Herbert Hoover. Doubleday, Page & Company. 226 pp. Ill.

The ideas about housebuilding which are here elaborated by Mrs. Bartlett Crane had a practical demonstration before they were put in a book. The house which embodies these ideas was built at Kalamazoo, Michigan, and won first prize over 1500 other demonstrations of the sort held simultaneously in different parts of the United States. Secretary Herbert Hoover is President of the "Better Homes in America" movement, and it was under the auspices of this organization that the housebuilding demonstrations were held. In a foreword to Mrs. Bartlett Crane's book, Mr. Hoover strongly commends the practicability of her plans for "Everyman's House" and urges that further efforts be made in the same direction. The book is full of suggestions to the man or woman who is planning to build a house at a cost of from \$5000 to \$7000, but of course the varying prices of labor and materials in different parts of the country make it impossible to say that a house built upon these plans can be erected anywhere for a given sum. There is no question, however, that many intending builders might make large savings by adopting some or all of Mrs. Bartlett Crane's suggestions.

The Science of Fly Fishing for Trout. By Fred G. Shaw. Charles Scribner's Sons. 341 pp. Ill.

In both England and America Mr. Shaw is said to be the most successful teacher of the art of casting for trout. In this book he presents and expands his views on dry versus wet fly fishing, the qualities of the perfect trout rod, the habits of trout and other topics to which every angler is keenly alive.

We Visit Old Inns. By Mary Harrod Northend. Boston: Small, Maynard & Company. 176 pp. Ill.

Motorists in New England, of whom there will be many during the coming weeks, may be expected to have an eye out for buildings of historic interest. In this book Miss Northend comes to their aid with an account of a number of the most famous old inns

which are still in existence. Her list includes the Wayside Inn at Sudbury, made known to the world by Longfellow and recently acquired by Henry Ford; Wayland Inn, Williams Tavern, at Marlborough, Mass.; the Pierce Tavern at Hillsborough, N. H., and many others of historical interest.

The Cruise of the Nona. By Hilaire Belloc. Houghton Mifflin Company. 328 pp.

The *Nona* is the name of Mr. Belloc's nine-ton boat in which he has sailed on many voyages. One finds in this book a readable story of an adventurous cruise, but beyond that the reader finds a most penetrating and thought-provoking study of modern life, especially in its war and post-war phases. As the author himself says, the book consists mainly of "reminiscences, judgments, stories, and all the rest that comes into a man's mind when he is thinking upon the past and upon his own acquired knowledge."

The Selection and Care of Sound Investments. By Arthur Hobart Herschel. The H. W. Wilson Company. 373 pp.

It is a well-known fact that the number of individual investors in the various forms of securities on the market has increased rapidly during recent years. It is also generally understood that more and more of these investors are giving personal attention to the placing and distribution of their investments. It is impossible for any prospective investor in a given stock or bond to find out for himself all that it would be desirable for him to know about such securities. But a book like this by Mr. Herschel can at least point out certain considerations that should have weight with every investor in reaching a decision. Some of these considerations, while important in themselves, may never have been brought to the investor's mind. Such a book, therefore, does valuable service by acting as a sort of guide to sound investments. It can be useful only when it results from the author's own experience and prolonged study. In these respects Mr. Herschel's work qualifies fully.